METCALF'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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Ethel Kittle.
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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR

COMMON SCHOOLS

BY

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MET. ENG. GRAM.

W. P. 9

PREFACE.

Before beginning the study of grammar, pupils should be carefully trained in the use of language. Correctness and facility in speaking and writing are best gained by practice; but while it is true that habit, rather than a knowledge of syntactical rules, controls a speaker's or writer's use of English, yet, in one who claims to be a scholar, ignorance of the history and structure of his language is no more excusable than ignorance in any other department of knowledge.

By the *grammar* of a language we mean the *facts* of the language. In teaching grammar, we should remember that pupils are to become acquainted with those facts, as far as possible, through their own efforts. Let the child become a discoverer, and let him experience the satisfaction that comes to every discoverer of truth.

Grammar should be taught inductively. Pupils should be led, first, in the light of their own experience, to study the simple facts of language, and then to investigate the more difficult matters of construction and inflection until they arrive at the general laws which govern its structure. In other words, pupils should be helped to help themselves. And yet it is next to impossible to present inductive lessons throughout a text-book. Lessons must be prepared for classes of pupils; and no one but the teacher can know to what extent each child needs illustrative exercises, or when he is prepared to take the next step.

This book is prepared on a plan somewhat different from that followed in most Grammars for schools. There are certain facts of grammar which must be learned before the mastery of other facts becomes possible. But although it is necessary, for example, to know something of the nature of nouns and verbs before beginning to analyze a sentence,

it is not necessary to teach all that pertains to nouns and verbs and to tax the pupils at the outset with intricacies and difficulties of language beyond their grasp. Strict classification of subjects demands such a course, but careful gradation forbids it. It will therefore be found that though each of the three parts into which this book is divided contains one central idea, its plan of development demands frequent repetition and reviews.

Thus, in Part I., we have endeavored to lead the pupil, by easy steps, (1) to understand the usual constructions of sentences, and (2) to study the uses of words and to classify them as parts of speech. This part of the work can be done easily in a year; and should the pupil proceed no farther, he will have gained possession of the most essential facts concerning the language.

In Part II. we call the pupil's attention to inflection, its extent and use; and also to the substitutes for inflection, which are peculiarly important in a language like ours.

In Part III. the preceding work is again carefully reviewed, and some of the more important difficulties are considered. Much attention is here given to analysis, and, in order to facilitate practice in this and to heighten its value, many carefully selected sentences are supplied, illustrating almost every peculiarity of construction.

This book is designed for use in the three grades next below the High School, and each Part contains the work for one school year.

In the preparation of this work, the authors have received help from valuable works on philology by Professors Earle, Morris, Lounsbury, and Whitney. They are also indebted to the excellent works on grammar by Dr. Bain and Professors Whitney, Meiklejohn, Tweed, Mulligan, and others.

For a careful reading of our proof, our thanks are due to Miss Emma Fisher, of the Normal School at Bridgewater, Mass., and to Professor D. O. S. Lowell, of the Latin School at Roxbury, Mass.

The authors will esteem it a favor if their attention is called to defects in the book, to the end that it may be improved.

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FOR REFERENCE.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters, and from these few letters all the words in the written language are formed.

Letters are divided into two classes; **vowels** and **consonants.**[1]

A **vowel** is an elementary sound made through an open position of the organs of speech: as. *a, ah, oh, awe.*

A **consonant** is an elementary sound made by means of a closure, or a partial closure, of some of the organs of speech: as in the first sound of the words *cail, base, my, nay, ray.*

The five letters *a, e, i, o, u,* commonly represent open, or vowel sounds: hence, these letters themselves are called vowels. *W* and *y* are also called vowels, except when immediately followed by a vowel in the same syllable. Thus *w* and *y* are vowels in *cow, few, boy, type, forty, myrtle;* in *win, twin, yes,* they are consonants.[2]

LONG VOWELS AND SHORT VOWELS.

The *name* sounds of the vowels, — ā, ē, ī, ō, ū, — as heard in *āim, ēel, īce,*[3] *ōwn, ūse,*[4] are called long, while the sounds repre-

[1] More properly, however, vowels and consonants are **sounds.**

[2] When not silent, the letters *i* and *u*, also, when followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable, represent consonants; as in *onion* (yun), *clothier* (yer), *quit* (kwit), *language* (gwej).

[3] *I* in *ice* really represents two vowels; viz. the sound of *a* in *arm*, and that of *i* in *in* (äīce). In like manner, *u* in *muse* represents *ī* and *o͞o* closely joined. Hence long *i* and long *u*, like *oi* and *ou*, are sometimes called diphthongs.

[4] It is important to note that the diphthong *u*, called "long *u*," is always preceded by a consonant in the same syllable. Even when "long *u*" seems

sented by the same letters in *ăm, ĕnd, ĭn, ŏn, ŭp,* are called short or explosive. The vowels heard in *ārm, fāre, ārm, all,* and *ooze,* are also long; and we must class as short vowels those heard in *ask* and *put.*

Five letters are thus seen to represent *seventeen different vowels!*

Two vowels when heard in one syllable are called a **diphthong**: as, *oi* in *boil,* and *ou* in *out.*

CONSONANTS.

Of the twenty-five consonant sounds in the language, seven are represented each by two letters. A combination of two letters to represent a single sound is called a **digraph**. The seven consonant digraphs are: *ch,* as in *chin; sh,* as in *shine; th,* as in *this; th,* as in *thin; zh,*[1] as in *azure; wh,* as in *when;* and *ng,* as in *song.*

The consonant sounds are divided into **subvocals** (or sonants) and **aspirates** (or non-sonants).

Aspirates are *breaths,* not voiced elements.

Subvocals are made with *sound,* and not with breath alone.

There are ten **aspirates**, as heard at the opening of the following words: *pin, tin, chin, kin, fin, thin, sin, shin, hint, whinny.*

An aspirate and a subvocal are called **cognate** (kindred) when both are formed with the same position of the lips, or the same position of lip and teeth, tongue and teeth, or tongue and palate.

There are eight pairs of cognate consonants, viz.: *b* and *p,* as in *cab, cap; d* and *t,* as in *kid, kit; j* and *ch,* as in *ridge, rich; g* and *k,* as in *bag, back; v* and *f,* as in *save, safe; th* and *th,* as in *breathe, breath; z* and *s,* as in *lose, loose; zh* and *sh,* as in *rouge, ruche.*

to begin a syllable, as in the words *use, manual,* the consonant *y* is heard before the *u* (*yuse, manyual*). This explains why we say "*a unit,*" "*a useful man,*" though we say "*an urn,*" "*an uncle.*" See p. 43, foot-note.

[1] *Called* "the sound of *zh*," though this digraph occurs in no English word.

The subvocals, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, and *ng*, because of their ready union with other consonants, are called **liquids**.

The following is a table of the consonant sounds: —

Aspirates: *p, t, ch, k, f, th, s, sh,* } mutes *h, wh.*
Subvocals: *b, d, j, g, v, th, z, zh,* } mutes *y, w*; *l, m, n, r, ng.*

ASSIMILATION.

In many words ending in *ed*, the *d* represents the sound of its cognate *t*. This is because the immediately preceding sound is aspirate, as in *sipped, starched, lacked, laughed, missed, rushed*. Here the *d* is said to *assimilate* to the preceding consonant, — to become, like it, aspirate. Observe a like change in the *z* of *quartz, chintz*.

S is regarded as aspirate; and it is so in *soon, moose, laps, nets, necks, truths*, etc. But we hear it as *z* when it is immediately preceded by a subvocal, thus: *Rob's, begs, bids, bathes*. This change, also, is called assimilation.

COALESCENCE.

The termination *ed* is added to thousands of words without increasing the number of syllables, thus: *release, released; differ, differed; agree, agreed; rob, robbed*.

It is otherwise when the original word ends in the sound of either *t* or *d*. Now a syllable must be added, as in *nod, nodded; delight, delighted;* etc. The reason is plain: *td* and *dd*, as syllables, cannot be pronounced.

Akin to the foregoing are words ending in the sound of *ch, s, sh, j*, or *z*, if we attempt to add *s*. The combinations, *chs, ss, shs, js, zs*, cannot well be uttered. We say the *s* will not *coalesce* (unite) with the preceding consonant. The difficulty is overcome by adding *es* instead of *s*, as in *church, churches; kiss, kisses; rush, rushes;* etc. See p. 95.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Part I.

I. LANGUAGE, ORAL AND WRITTEN.

Grammar is a record of the forms and constructions of a language as employed by the best speakers and writers.

Language is the expression of thought in words, and is either oral or written.

Oral language is made up of a succession of sounds, called words.

Written language is made up of letters, which usually represent sounds. These letters are grouped into words, each word, as in oral language, suggesting an idea.

In the English language there are three words that have only one letter each; viz. *a*, *I*, and *O*.

Some words can be pronounced with one impulse of the voice; as, *house*, *shop*. Such a word has but one syllable, and is called a **monosyllable** (one syllable).

Some words are pronounced with two impulses of the voice; as, *sug-gest*, *writ-ing*, *break-fast*. Such words are **dissyllables** (two syllables).

Words having three syllables are **trisyllables** (three syllables); as, *hem-i-sphere*, *an-ec-dote*, *spec-u-late*. Words of more than three syllables are **polysyllables** (many syllables); as, *dic-tion-a-ry*, *cor-re-spond-ent*.

II. THE SENTENCE.

We express our thoughts with words, which may be either oral or written.

A group of words expressing a complete thought is a sentence.

Which of the four groups of words below are sentences, and why? Which one is not a sentence, and why not?

1. Bees make honey.
2. The honest farmer.
3. Are you happy?
4. The boys are playing.

A written sentence should be followed by a full pause (. ? !).

A sentence may be —

(1) A statement; as, *The boys study diligently.*

(2) A question; as, *Do the boys study diligently?*

(3) A command or an entreaty; as, *Boys, study diligently. Sister, forgive me!*

A sentence that makes a statement is a **declarative** sentence; one that asks a question is an **interrogative** sentence; and one that expresses a command or an entreaty is an **imperative** sentence.

Exercise.

How do we express our thoughts? What is language? What is oral language? What is written language? Of what are oral words formed? Of what are written words formed? What three words in English have but one letter each? What are monosyllables? Give examples. What are dissyllables? trisyllables? polysyllables? Give examples.

What does a letter commonly represent? What does a word suggest? What does a sentence express?

Write two declarative sentences; two interrogative; two imperative.

III. THE TWO PARTS OF A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE.

Exercise.

Make complete sentences of the following.

1. —— is often called Green Erin.
2. —— was succeeded by President Madison.
3. —— settled on Manhattan island.
4. —— raised the laborers' wages.
5. —— is heavier than iron.
6. —— is almost as tall as the father.
7. —— are the three most populous cities in the country.
8. —— was often called the Father of his Country.
9. The scenery along the Hudson ——.
10. The sailors who came with Columbus ——.
11. Robinson Crusoe ——.
12. Anthracite coal ——.
13. Cyclones ——.
14. One hundred soldiers ——.
15. Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes ——.

You will notice, if you think carefully, that the sentences which you have just made consist of two parts, viz.: —

(1) A part which makes an assertion or declares something.

(2) A part which names and sometimes describes the object about which the assertion is made.

My father is an old man.

In this sentence the words which make an assertion are, *is an old man;* the words which name and point out the object about which the assertion is made, are, *my father.*

The part of a sentence which represents the thing of which something is said, is the **subject.**

The part of a sentence which represents what is said of the thing named by the subject, is the **predicate.**

IV. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

Examine the following sentence.

Mr. Monroe bought the boat for a hundred dollars.

In this sentence the speaker has in mind several objects, viz. the boat, Mr. Monroe, and the hundred dollars: but the assertion *bought the boat for a hundred dollars* is made only of *Mr. Monroe*. In separating a sentence, therefore, into its two principal parts, it is well to look (1) for the words making the **assertion**, and (2) for the **name** of the thing about which the assertion is made.

Exercise.

(First oral and then written.)

(*a*) In each of the following sentences, what assertion is made?

(*b*) Of what is it made?

In naming the two parts of these sentences, be sure, for the present, that the parts are made to include all the words of the sentence.

1. This sheet of paper is spoiled.
2. My pencil must be sharpened.
3. The ribbon is lost from Mary's hair.
4. The lame boy fell on the ice.
5. The beautiful canary is dead.
6. The white sails of the great ship hung useless in the still air.
7. A true man will sacrifice the low pleasures of an idle life.
8. A letter from cousin Mabel was received this morning.
9. George Washington died in 1799.
10. A little hard study every day will accomplish wonders.
11. Boys are seldom hurt by hard study.
12. The customs of the Greeks were far different from ours.
13. Alexander's fame has come down to us.

V. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE (*continued*).

Exercise.

To retreat was impossible.

In this sentence *was impossible* is the **predicate,** because these words make the assertion: *to retreat* is the **subject,** because these words name that of which the assertion is made.

What was impossible? *Ans.* "To retreat."

(*a*) In the following sentences, name first the predicate and then the subject, giving a reason each time for your conclusion.

(*b*) Frame a question including the predicate which shall require the subject as an answer.

1. Beggars must not be choosers.
2. The furniture is arranged very neatly.
3. A gull was seen skimming over the water.
4. The horse sometimes lives to the age of thirty years.
5. Living for self alone is unworthy.
6. Birds of a feather flock together.
7. That beautiful watch was bought at Noyes's store.
8. Fine feathers do not make fine birds.
9. A man without a purpose is like a ship without a rudder.
10. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

A subject combined with a predicate forms a **proposition.**

Examples: The girl studies. Is the boy idle?

One proposition may be a complete sentence, or a sentence may comprise two or more propositions.

Example: The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old.

VI. ANALYSIS.

When we separate a sentence into its two principal parts, subject and predicate, we partially **analyze** the sentence. Usually, either the subject or the predicate, and sometimes both, may also be analyzed.

Separating a sentence into the parts of which it is composed is analyzing it.

Exercise 1.

SUBJECT. PREDICATE.

That beautiful town | has been destroyed by a freshet.

Copy the following sentences, and analyze each one so far as to separate the subject from the predicate by a vertical line, as in the example above.

1. The mercury stands very high to-day.
2. A beautiful river runs through the valley.
3. A thick, black smoke still rises from the ruins.
4. The horse ran away with the carriage.
5. The top of the tower is a hundred feet from the ground.
6. The point of my pen is broken off.
7. General Sherman was a brother of Senator Sherman of Ohio.
8. Boys with studious habits are sure to succeed.

The sentences used in this exercise are statements, and the arrangement is (1) the subject and (2) the predicate. This order, which is called the **natural order** of a sentence, is not always followed.

Exercise 2.

Write answers to the following questions.

1. What is the subject of a sentence? the predicate?
2. The subject and predicate together make what?
3. If the subject be taken from a sentence, what will remain?
4. If the predicate be taken from a sentence, what will remain?

VII. ARRANGEMENT OF A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE.

Exercise.

On the fourth of July, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was signed.

The Declaration of Independence | was signed on the fourth of July, 1776.

(*a*) Rewrite, as above, each of the following sentences, placing the subject before the predicate.

(*b*) Separate the subject and predicate by a vertical line.

1. These books, Mary left on the stair.
2. Soon after this, came a moan from the sick-room.
3. In the autumn, these leaves will be beautifully tinted.
4. By the wayside, the poor wanderer fell.
5. With a slow and noiseless footstep, comes the messenger.
6. In that secure village, and in one of those very houses, lived a simple, good-natured fellow, by the name of Rip Van Winkle.
7. After turning from the main road, we came in sight of the cottage.
8. In a long ramble, on a fine day, Rip scrambled to the top of the mountain.
9. Above the book-cases, were arranged a great number of portraits of ancient authors.
10. Now and then, one of these persons would write something on a slip of paper.
11. Wondrous truths, God has written in the stars above.
12. In the bright flowerets under us, stands the revelation of His love.
13. Bright and glorious is that revelation.
14. Down the broad valley, fast and far the troubled army fled.
15. Aloud from cottage roofs, the warbling bluebird sings.
16. Merrily sounds, from the threshing floor, the busy flail.
17. O'er the vale, with gentle swell, the music of the village bell came sweetly to the echo-giving hills.
18. On sunny slope and beechen swell,
    The shadowed light of evening fell.
19. Far upward in the mellow light, rose the blue hills.

VIII. ARRANGEMENT OF AN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE.

In the foregoing lessons we have chiefly studied sentences that are declarative.

We have found that they may be separated into parts, subject and predicate, and that the natural order of these parts is (1) the subject and (2) the predicate.

(1) What kind of sentence is the following?

The river is deep.

(2) Separate its subject and predicate by a line.

(3) Write the sentence so that it will ask a question.

(4) What change have you made in the order of the words?

(5) In the question, can you separate the subject from the predicate by a vertical line? Give your reason.

(6) What is the natural order of a declarative sentence?

(7) How do the sentences below differ in arrangement?

The river is deep. (Declarative.)
Is the river deep? (Interrogative.)

In changing a sentence from the declarative to the interrogative form, it is often necessary to introduce the word *do* (*does*, *did*).

Examples: The pupil studies hard. (Declarative.)
Does the pupil study hard? (Interrogative.)

What is the order of arrangement in this interrogative sentence? How does it differ from that in *Is the river deep?*

Some interrogative sentences have the arrangement of declarative sentences.

Examples: Who will lend me his knife?
Which man was hurt?
What brings you here?

Exercise.

Declarative, A monument was erected on the battlefield.
Interrogative, *Was a monument erected on the battlefield?*

In the last sentence the order is, (1) a part of the predicate (*was*), (2) the subject (*a monument*), and (3) the rest of the predicate (*erected on the battlefield*). This is the usual order of an interrogative sentence.

(*a*) Change the following sentences from the declarative to the interrogative form, and note the change in the order.

(*b*) Write an answer to each question.

1. Necessity is the mother of invention.
2. Each exercise must be well written.
3. The park contains forty-eight acres.
4. This bud may prove a beautiful flower.
5. I am reading Shakespeare.
6. Sweet are the uses of adversity.

IX. ANALYSIS OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

Exercise.

(First oral and then written.)

Change each of the following sentences from the interrogative to the declarative form, and then separate the subject from the predicate by a vertical line.

1. Are the sea and the sky equally beautiful?
2. Was not the Columbia an unsafe steamer?
3. Is Ireland's misery wholly due to England's oppression?
4. Were these eaglets taken from the cliff?
5. Are the floods very destructive?
6. Was the horse afraid of the electric cars?
7. Should all florists be lovers of their occupation?
8. Were the colors of the autumn leaves very brilliant?
9. Is not the elm your favorite tree?

X. COMPELLATIVES.

(1) When I say, *John, will you shut the door?* what is the word *John* used for?

(2) Under what circumstances might the name as well be omitted?

(3) Is the sentence interrogative or imperative?

(4) What is the subject of the sentence?

(5) What is the predicate of the sentence?

The word *John* is used in the sentence to call, or compel, the attention of the person addressed. As you have seen, it forms no part of either subject or predicate, but is independent of the sentence.

The word used to call, or compel, the attention of the one addressed, is called the **compellative.**[1] It should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas.

Exercise.

In each of the following sentences, name (*a*) the kind of sentence, (*b*) the compellative, (*c*) the predicate, and (*d*) the subject.

1. Harry, what answer did your father give?
2. My son, you have done right.
3. Will you stand for your rights, my braves?
4. Venerable men, you have come down to us from a former generation.
5. Thou, O Lord, shalt endure forever.
6. Cassius, I am armed in honesty.
7. Hast thou courage, man?
8. Sweet Land of Liberty, of thee I sing.
9. Consistency, thou art a jewel.
10. O night and storm and darkness, ye are wondrous strong.

[1] The word *compellative* has been adopted from De Sacy's "General Grammar," and seems better chosen than *nominative independent*.

XI. IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

Imperative sentences may be expanded into declarative sentences without changing their meaning. *Study your lessons* means, *I desire* (wish, insist) *that you study your lessons*. *Do help me* means, *I beg* (insist, desire) *that you help me*.

On the other hand, shortening the declarative sentence into the imperative makes it more emphatic. *Shut the door* is a shorter and more emphatic way of saying, *I desire that you will shut the door*.

As commands and entreaties are always made to some one who is supposed to be present, the name, or word standing for the name, of the one addressed is usually omitted.

Trust (thou) *in the Lord with all thine heart.*

In this sentence *thou* (understood after *trust*) is the subject.

The word, whether expressed or understood, which stands for the name of the person or thing addressed, is the subject of the sentence.

In imperative sentences the compellative must not be confounded with the subject. The compellative forms no part of either subject or predicate.

Lord, help (thou) *us to know thy ways.*

In this sentence, *Lord* is the compellative, and *thou* (understood after the word *help*) is the subject.

Flow gently, sweet Afton.

Here, *sweet Afton* is the compellative, and *thou* (understood after the word *flow*) is the subject.

Exercise.

In the following sentences, point out (*a*) the compellative, (*b*) the predicate, and (*c*) the subject.

1. Go to thy rest, fair child.
2. Touch us gently, Time!
3. Let me, madam, be your servant.
4. Break, O Sea, on thy cold, gray stones!
5. O mighty Cæsar, dost thou lie so low?
6. Give me your hand, Bassanio.
7. Close not, O Freedom, thy lids in slumber.

A declarative, an interrogative, or an imperative sentence may be used to express emotion, surprise, etc. It is then called an exclamatory sentence.

Examples:

To-day the vessel shall be launched! (Exclamatory declarative.)
Who would believe it to be true! (Exclamatory interrogative.)
Just see what a plight we are in! (Exclamatory imperative.)

An **exclamatory** sentence is one that is used to express strong feeling; it is followed by an exclamation point.

XII. ANALYSIS.

Exercise.

(*a*) Tell whether each of the sentences below is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.

(*b*) Point out the compellative if there is one.

(*c*) Name the predicate and the subject.

1. The mountains of California contain gold.
2. The slaves were set free in 1863.
3. How many miles an hour does light travel?
4. Strike for your altars and your fires!
5. The palm tree grows in hot countries.
6. Now comes Venus in all her glory!
7. Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction?

8. We are ruined by bad habits.
9. Dare to do right!
10. He hath the manners, the face, and the outward form of a Flemish butcher.
11. Laugh'st thou, Lochiel, my vision to scorn!
12. Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
13. Should I have answered Caius Cassius so?
14. In the morning we shall start on our journey.
15. Friends, I come not here to talk.
16. Is this the part of brave men?
17. Has the verdict of the jury been rendered?
18. Then came a murmur of dissent.
19. This unfertile brain cannot devise so wise a scheme.

XIII. USES OF WORDS IN SENTENCES.

Every word in a sentence may be classified according to its use. Before attempting to classify words, therefore, it will be necessary to study their uses.

Exercise.

A good boy obeys his parents.

In this sentence, *boy* is used to represent the person spoken of; *obeys* is used to tell or assert what the boy did; *parents* is used to point out the persons that the boy obeys; *good* is used to describe the boy; *his* is used to prevent the repetition of the word *boy*.

Tell the use of each word in the following sentences.

1. Charles studies his reading lesson.
2. George had two large oranges.
3. This gay summer brings us many pleasures.
4. Evil communications corrupt good manners.
5. Beautiful dwellings stood there formerly.

6. Hope lightens our heaviest burdens.
7. The pupils obeyed their teacher's directions.
8. Bad habits ruin us.
9. The sunshine is a glorious birth.
10. True hope is swift.
11. Care and diligence bring luck.
12. Constant complaints never get pity.

NOTE TO THE TEACHER. — Exercises similar to the preceding should be given until the pupils become skillful in telling the uses of words in sentences.

Words that occur in phrases and clauses should be grouped, and the pupil should be asked to tell the use of the group rather than of the separate words of the group. Thus, —

The child ran into the garden for the ball which he had lost.

XIV. NOUNS.

Although there are thousands of words in the language, yet all of them may be included in eight classes called **Parts of Speech.**

As the classification of a word depends upon its use, and as some words may be used in more than one way, it follows that the same word may be found in more than one class.

A word, or a group of words, used as a name is a noun.

Examples: *A* is the first letter of the alphabet. *Thou* is a monosyllable. *Boston* is the capital of Massachusetts. "*Uncle Tom's Cabin*" was written by Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe.

A noun denoting but one person or thing is in the **singular number**; as, *man*, *boy*, *girl*. A noun denoting more than one person or thing is in the **plural number**; as, *men*, *boys*, *girls*.

Exercise.

The rain falls upon the roof.

In this sentence, *rain* is the name of water falling in drops from the clouds. *Roof* is the name of the covering of a building.

(*a*) In the following sentences, what words are used as names, and of what are they names?

(*b*) Which are in the plural?

1. General Washington commanded the army in the Revolution.
2. Some of the mountains in Asia are very high.
3. The teacher who was ill is now in school.
4. John may shut the door, and put some wood on the fire.
5. Robert Burns, the poet, was a Scotchman.
6. The sheep of Saxony furnish valuable wool and mutton.
7. The children ran races in Jefferson Park.
8. Give a rogue an inch, and he will take an ell.
9. A party of Danes made a settlement on the river.

NOTE TO THE TEACHER.—The sentences which make up the "Exercises" in the following lessons may be used for analysis or parsing.

In analysis, let the pupil state all that he has learned about the construction of a sentence; and in parsing, all that he has learned about a word as a part of speech.

XV. NOUNS, COMMON AND PROPER.

When we speak of *Abraham Lincoln*, we refer to one of the presidents of the United States. When we speak of *Chicago*, we refer to a city in Illinois, on Lake Michigan. When we speak of *Bucephalus*, we refer to a celebrated horse that belonged to Alexander the Great.

Such names as *Abraham Lincoln*, *Chicago*, and *Bucephalus*, which belong only to particular persons or things, are called proper names, or **proper nouns.**

When we use the name *boy*, we may refer to William, John, Peter, Morris, or any other boy. The word *city* may apply to Boston, New York, Chicago, St. Louis, or any one of the cities of the world.

Such names as *boy* and *city* are class names, and are called **common nouns**, because they are held in common by all of a kind.

Notice that a name may consist of one, two, three, or even more words; as, *Washington, Abraham Lincoln, William Cullen Bryant, Bridge of Sighs.*

Notice also that a proper noun, when written or printed, begins with a capital letter, while a common noun does not, unless it stands at the beginning of a sentence.

The name of some particular person, place, or thing is called a proper noun.

The name of a class of persons, places, or things is called a common noun.

Exercise I.

PROPER NOUNS, OR SPECIAL NAMES.	COMMON NOUNS, OR CLASS NAMES.
Ohio, Danube, Obi, Congo, Nile.	*river.*

Copy the groups of proper nouns below, and place at the right of each group the appropriate class name.

1. New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco.
2. Belle, Jennie, Clara, Mary.
3. Jupiter, Earth, Mars, Venus.
4. Ontario, Huron, Erie, Champlain.
5. James, Henry, Thomas, Robert.
6. Italy, China, Spain, Mexico.
7. Europe, Africa, Asia, America.
8. Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer.

9. Sirius, Aldebaran, Arcturus, Vega.
10. Longfellow, Bryant, Lowell, Whittier.
11. Kennebec, Hudson, Thames, Niger.
12. St. Peter's, St. Paul's, Notre Dame.
13. The Renaissance, the Revolution, the Civil War.
14. Middlesex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Essex.
15. Esther, Catherine, Victoria, Dido.
16. David, Solomon, Arthur, John.
17. Massasoit, Philip, Tecumseh, Osceola.
18. Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday.
19. June, March, October, December.
20. Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, Parkman.

Exercise 2.

CLASS NAMES, OR COMMON NOUNS.	SPECIAL NAMES, OR PROPER NOUNS.
poem.	*Evangeline, Thanatopsis.*

Copy the common names below, and, at the right of each one, place appropriate proper names.

boy	sea	statesman
girl	king	general
tune	country	president
saint	island	teacher
story	warrior	newspaper

XVI. COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

A plural noun, as already learned, is a name applied to more than one object; as, *books*, *knives*, *oxen*, *mice*.

But there are some nouns that are applied to groups of objects even when the names are in the singular number; as, *herd*, *army*, *school*, *flock*.

A *herd* is made up of a number of cattle; an *army*, of a number of soldiers; a *school*, of a number of pupils; and

a *flock*, of a number of birds or sheep. Each of these names has a plural, — *herds*, *armies*, *schools*, *flocks*. You will notice, however, that these plurals are applied to a number of *groups*, not to a number of individuals.

A name that in the singular number is applied to a collection of objects of the same kind, is called a **collective noun.**

Nearly all collective nouns are common nouns; but *Congress*, *Parliament*, etc., must be classed as proper nouns.

Exercise 1.

army	audience	brace
of soldiers	*of thinking men*	*of partridges*

(*a*) Name, as above, the objects of which the following collections may be composed.

bevy	team	covey	fleet	clump	society
club	herd	choir	drove	school	regiment
crew	brood	group	suite	family	company
gang	class	flock	crowd	couple	committee

(*b*) What word in the singular may be given to a collection of cows? of geese? of girls? of pupils? of bees? of soldiers? of Indians? of ships? of sailors on shipboard? of people under one government?

Exercise 2.

Point out the nouns in the sentences below, tell to what class each belongs, and why it belongs to that class.

1. In the evening, at the observatory, the whole class watched the eclipse.
2. The family holds a reunion, every Christmas, at the town-hall.
3. Mr. Stanley told us of his adventures with the wild tribes in Africa.
4. The whole nation mourned for the dead president.
5. Admiral Farragut commanded the fleet at New Orleans.

XVII. REVIEW EXERCISE.

(*a*) Name *all* the nouns in the following extract, and classify them; also point out one compellative.

(*b*) Give the subject and the predicate of the first proposition in the selection; of the last proposition in the first stanza; of the last proposition in the last stanza.

Under a spreading chestnut tree
The village smithy stands;
The smith, a mighty man is he,
With large and sinewy hands;
And the muscles of his brawny arms
Are strong as iron bands.

His hair is crisp, and black, and long,
His face is like the tan;
His brow is wet with honest sweat;
He earns whate'er he can,
And looks the whole world in the face,
For he owes not any man.

Week in, week out, from morn till night,
You can hear his bellows blow;
You can hear him swing his heavy sledge,
With measured beat, and slow.

Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing,
Onward through life he goes;
Each morning sees some task begin,
Each evening sees its close;
Something attempted, something done,
Has earned a night's repose.

Thanks, thanks to thee, my worthy friend,
For the lesson thou hast taught!
Thus at the flaming forge of life
Our fortunes must be wrought.

XVIII. PRONOUNS.

Exercise 1.

Rewrite the following sentences in such way as to avoid the repetition of the nouns.

1. James enjoys James's position.
2. The men have raised the men's rifles and are about to discharge the rifles.
3. Your opinions are also my opinions.
4. My preference was also his preference.
5. Here is a gun ; the gun's aim is true.
6. Messrs. Johnson and Co. are using Mr. Barton's horse, and Mr. Barton is using Messrs. Johnson and Co.'s.

A word used instead of a noun is called a pronoun (*pro-noun = for a noun*).

Exercise 2.

They shook them from the trees.
The boys shook the nuts from the trees.

In the first sentence, *they* and *them* are pronouns. Substituting nouns in place of the pronouns, we have the second sentence.

In place of the Italicized pronouns in the sentences below, use such names of persons or things as will express the probable meaning.

1. *She* will not allow *its* dazzling light to enter *his* sick-room.
2. *It* struck the ship violently, and nearly swept *them* off the deck.
3. *They* form the entire surface of the earth.
4. *It* was keen and frosty as *he* drove *them* through the town.
5. James went out to fly *his* kite. *Its* tail was soon caught in a tree.
6. "*My* Lord has need of these flowerets gay,"
   The Reaper said, and smiled;
   "Dear tokens of the earth are *they*,
   Where *He* was once a child."

XIX. ANTECEDENTS OF PRONOUNS.

The exercises in Lesson XVIII. show that pronouns are used frequently as a matter of convenience to enable us to avoid using long and awkward expressions.

If we say, *The trip to Alaska was thoroughly enjoyed, but it was attended with some danger*, the word *it* enables us to express the thought just as clearly as though the words *the trip to Alaska* were repeated.

The word, or group of words, for which a pronoun stands, is called its **antecedent.**

England expects every man to do his *duty.*
To meet the teacher was then a dread; now it *is a pleasure.*
"'Tis never too late to mend" is an old adage, but it *may mislead.*

In the first sentence, the noun *man* is the antecedent of the pronoun *his;* in the second, the group of words *to meet the teacher*, is the antecedent of *it;* in the third, the pronoun *it* refers to the adage, *'Tis never too late to mend.*

Pronouns frequently have no antecedents expressed.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the antecedents of the Italicized pronouns in the extract below, and name the pronouns whose antecedents are not expressed.

(*b*) Point out the nouns, and tell whether they are common, proper, or collective, and why.

Burned Marmion's swarthy cheek like fire,
And shook *his* very frame for ire,
And — "This to *me!*" *he* said,
"An 'twere not for *thy* hoary beard,
Such hand as Marmion's had not spared
To cleave the Douglas' head!

And first *I* tell *thee*, haughty peer,
He who does England's message here,
Although the meanest in *her* state,
May well, proud Angus, be *thy* mate;
And, Douglas, more *I* tell *thee* here,
Even in *thy* pitch of pride,
Here in *thy* hold, *thy* vassals near, —
Nay, never look upon *your* lord,
And lay *your* hands upon *your* sword, —
I tell *thee*, *thou*'rt defied!"

XX. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Exercise.

(*a*) In the following sentences, point out the pronouns and tell what nouns might be used in place of them.

(*b*) Which of the pronouns refer to but one person or thing? Which to more than one?

(*c*) Which refer to a person who is speaking? Which to a person spoken to? Which to a person or thing spoken of?

1. I am the boy.
2. This is my book.
3. This book is mine.
4. He gave the book to me.
5. We will go together.
6. Our books are new.
7. Is this paper ours?
8. The boy gave the paper to us.
9. Thou art the man.
10. Thy sins are forgiven.
11. Thine eye is evil.
12. You are seven years old.
13. Is this coat yours?
14. He is often late.
15. His slate was given to him.
16. She always does her best.

Nouns and pronouns that denote but one person or thing are in the **singular number**; as, *man*, *woman*, *he*, *she*. Those that denote more than one person or thing are in the **plural number**; as, *men*, *women*, *they*, *them*.

Nouns and pronouns that denote the speaker are said to be in the **first person**; as, *I*, *my*, *me*. Those that denote

the person spoken to are in the **second person**; as, *thou*, *thy*, *you*, *yours*. Those that denote the person or thing spoken of are in the **third person**: as, *he*, *she*, *they*, *them*.

Pronouns that show by their forms (spelling) whether they are in the first, the second, or the third person are called **personal pronouns**. For example, *I* is always in the first person, *you* in the second, and *he* in the third; hence *I*, *you*, and *he* are personal pronouns.

LIST OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS (FOR REFERENCE).

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
The speaker, First Person.	I, my, mine, me.	we, our, ours, us.
The person spoken to, Second Person.	thou, thy, thine, thee.	ye, you, your, yours.
The person or thing spoken of, Third Person.	he, his, him. she, her, hers. it, its.	they, their, theirs, them.

XXI. PERSONAL PRONOUNS (*continued*).

Exercise.

Point out the personal pronouns and their antecedents in the following sentences.

1. James and his bride became the talk of the village, and Jane often saw them from her window.
2. The lad had taken off his scarf and thrust it into his pocket, lest the rain should take the color out of it.
3. There was no surprising Hendry unless he was in the mood for it, and his coolness was one of Jess's grievances.
4. Jamie inquired for his mother in a tone that was meant to deceive me into thinking he did not care how she was.
5. Hendry was never tired of gloating over Jess's cleverness so long as she was not present. He was always athirst for fresh proofs of it.

6. Jess read "The Heart of Midlothian," and she and I had a discussion about it. Our village once had an author of its own.
7. When a mob punishes a guilty man, it is itself guilty of a greater crime than the criminal who suffers at its hands.
8. The Ancient Mariner is picked up by the hermit and his companions; and, as soon as they step on shore, he cries to the hermit, "Shrive me, shrive me, holy man," and then he tells the story of his cruelty to the bird, and the terrible punishment he has undergone on that account.
9. Swiftly, swiftly, flew the ship,
Yet she sailed softly too:
Sweetly, sweetly, blew the breeze, —
On me alone it blew.

XXII. COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The syllable *self* (plural *selves*) is added to many of the personal pronouns, thus forming what are called **compound personal pronouns**: as, *myself*, *themselves*.

(1) Select from the list of personal pronouns on page 35, such as will take the syllable *self*, and write the compound personal pronouns.

(2) Select from the same list such pronouns as will take the syllable *selves*, and write the compound personal pronouns.

These pronouns have two uses: —

(1) They are sometimes used merely for emphasis.

Examples: I did it myself. We saw the Queen herself.

(2) Sometimes they are used in the predicate of the sentence as a repetition of the subject, or, as is often said, in a reflexive sense.

Examples: She hurt herself. The witness perjured himself.

(3) A **simple** pronoun is sometimes used reflexively.

Example: I laid *me* down and slept.

Exercise.

(*a*) In the following sentences, point out each personal pronoun, tell why it is a personal pronoun, and name its antecedent if it has one.

(*b*) Point out the compound personal pronouns. Which are used for emphasis, and which in a reflexive sense?

1. It is written, "My house is a house of prayer; but ye have made it a den of thieves."
2. I myself sometimes despise myself.
3. Why don't you speak for yourself, John?

4. In silence the crowd awaited the will of the soldiers.
   Then uprose their commander, and spoke from the steps of the altar,
   Holding aloft in his hands, with its seals, the royal commission.
   "You are convened this day," he said, "by his Majesty's orders.
   Clement and kind has he been, but how you have answered his kindness,
   Let your own hearts reply! To my natural make and my temper,
   Painful the task is I do, which to you I know must be grievous.
   Yet must I bow and obey, and deliver the will of our monarch;
   Namely, that all your lands and dwellings and cattle of all kinds
   Forfeited be to the crown; and that you yourselves from this province
   Be transported to other lands."

5. From the neighboring school
   Come the boys,
   With more than their wonted noise
   And commotion;
   And down the wet streets
   Sail their mimic fleets,
   Till the treacherous pool
   Ingulfs them in its whirling
   And turbulent ocean.

6. Ah! sure, within man and without,
   Could his dark wisdom find it out,
   There must be answer to his doubt.

XXIII. ADJECTIVES.

Compare the following sentences.

The elm threw its shadow over the stream.
The graceful elm threw its shadow over the stream.

You see that the word *graceful* adds an idea not expressed in the first sentence. What is that idea?

Words used to point out more fully, or to describe, the objects designated by nouns and pronouns are called adjectives.

Sometimes such words express a **quality** of the object named; as, *the graceful elm*. Sometimes they indicate the **number** of objects; as, *a few men, six eggs*. Again, they may give an idea of the **place** of an object; as, *yonder hills, these flowers*.

An adjective is said to qualify, modify, or limit a noun (or pronoun) when it points out more definitely, or describes, the object which the noun names.

Exercise.

These two generous farmers have a miserly neighbor.

In this sentence, *these* points out the farmers as near; *two* shows their number; *generous* indicates their character; *miserly* denotes the character of the neighbor.

Tell for what the Italicized words in the sentences below are used.

1. A *smooth*, *green* lawn pleases the eye.
2. Isaac caught a *large black* bass.
3. The mate's *long* yarns amused the *youthful* voyagers.
4. The *three young* robins have just learned to fly.
5. *Many* children suffer from lack of *nutritious* food.
6. *Four powerful Norman* horses were attached to the dray.
7. The *bald-headed* eagle is a *rapacious* bird.

8. A *true* lover of Nature studies her *changing* hues and forms.
9. *Some early* fruits are *costly*.
10. Reading makes a *full* man; writing, an *exact* man.
11. The *generous* beat of *that ardent* heart, now so *quiet*, is yet felt by a *grateful* multitude.
12. A *sincere* love sought to pay him its *grateful* tribute.
13. *Many* softly whispered their praises of the *great* and *good* minister.
14. It was love that made the *last dark* days of life all *open* and *bright* to him.
15. Along the streets of *old* Bennington are *neat* cottages and *stately* mansions, with a *creditable* array of churches and schools.
16. The *cheery* light of a *new* era shone in his face.
17. He was swept on by an *unspent* ardor that made an *easy* and *deliberate* conversation quite *impossible*.

XXIV. ADJECTIVES (*continued*).

Exercise I.

Copy the following incomplete sentences, and fill each blank with a word that shall point out or describe the object (or objects) named by the noun that follows.

1. A knife is usually held in the —— hand.
2. All —— watch-dogs are prized.
3. —— robins are fed by the mother-birds.
4. —— manners are offensive.
5. A —— road is the shortest.
6. A —— answer turneth away wrath.
7. —— harvests delight the farmer.
8. —— clouds look threatening.
9. An —— eclipse of the sun allows only a bright ring to be seen.
10. —— trees grow from acorns.
11. —— boys will usually be shunned.
12. A very —— horse usually brings a —— price.
13. A —— son maketh a glad father.
14. —— soldiers do not run away.
15. The —— workman will receive only —— wages.

Exercise 2.

Mother has bought a { *fine*, *beautiful*, *costly*, *rich*, *soft* } *carpet.*

Copy the sentences below and try to find five suitable adjectives for each blank.

1. Napoleon was a —— general.
2. Chicago has had a —— growth.
3. Edgar's manners are ——.
4. The Pilgrim fathers were —— men.
5. The Sahara is a —— region.
6. Helen's father gave her a —— watch.

XXV. ADJECTIVES (*continued*).

Exercise 1.

Tree { *sound*, *hollow*; *large*, *small*; *thrifty*, *decaying*; *young*, *old*; *straight*, *crooked*; *prolific*, *barren*.

In like manner, copy the following nouns, and after each write three or more pairs of adjectives denoting opposite qualities which may belong to the object.

book	sky	horse	letter	service
road	farm	water	voyage	foliage
room	moon	dinner	carpet	countenance

Exercise 2.

Write, as in Exercise 1, pairs of adjectives denoting opposite qualities belonging to the following.

song	cloud	novel	sunset	history
gait	site	garden	journey	senator
mine	ruin	manner	morning	accident

XXVI. ADJECTIVES (*continued*).

Exercise.

A few rough men destroyed those works of art.

In this sentence, *few* denotes number; *rough* denotes quality; *those* implies remoteness in place or time.

Connect each of the following words, as an adjective, with two or more suitable nouns, and tell of each adjective whether it denotes quality, number, or place.

rough	giant	these	yonder
sound	low	common	aged
shattered	full-grown	thickset	towering
shaggy	showy	few	two
enormous	countless	handsome	kingly
near	opposite	lifeless	hollow
distant	upright	tall	crabbed
grand	those	small	vigorous

How do such words as *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*, indicate place?

XXVII. GENERAL REVIEW.

(1) What is a sentence? Make or select a declarative, an interrogative, an imperative, and an exclamatory sentence.

(2) Define and illustrate the following terms: subject; predicate; compellative; noun, proper noun, common noun; pronoun, personal pronoun, compound personal pronoun; and adjective.

(3) In the following sentence, (1) point out the subject and the predicate, and (2) give the part of speech of each word in Italics.

The *honest farmer*, *strong* in *his integrity*, spurned the *offer*.

XXVIII. ARTICLES.

The words, *a*, *an*, and *the*, when used before nouns to limit their meaning, are sometimes called **articles**.

These words are usually classed as **adjectives**, because, like adjectives, they are used as modifiers of nouns.

A and *an*, two forms of the same word, are called the **indefinite article**. They point out, indefinitely, the object named by a noun.

The is called the **definite article** because it points out an object somewhat definitely. It may be used before either a singular or a plural noun, and often differs but little from the word *that*.

Examples: *The* man built a house. *That* man built a house.

When several objects are named, and each is referred to separately, the indefinite article must be repeated before each noun; but if two or more nouns refer to one object, the indefinite article is commonly used before the first only.

Examples: A house and a barn were burned.
The plan has been approved by Professor Boise, a gentleman and scholar.

In cases like the latter, however, the repetition of the article is sometimes used to give emphasis.

Exercise.

Use the article *a* or *an*, in sentences, before the following nouns, and give the first sound in the noun. Tell whether the sound is that of a vowel or of a consonant.

arm	urn	hoop	hall	olive	easel	angel
one	hour	herb	heir	uncle	chair	union
owl	city	desk	whoop	youth	yacht	quince

In the last exercise, you have found that *a* may properly be used before a word beginning with a consonant sound, and *an*, before a word beginning with a vowel sound.

You will also notice that the sound of the *n* in the article *an* separates the sound of the vowel *a* which precedes the *n*, from the vowel sound which introduces the following word. This renders the words more easily spoken.[1]

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED IN THE USE OF ARTICLES.

1. He came to the conclusion that no human being was competent to instruct him in divine things: not, He came to *a* conclusion, etc.

2. He was a strange kind of man; not, He was a strange kind of *a* man.

3. Napoleon now assumed the title of emperor; not, Napoleon now assumed the title of *an* emperor.

4. *Ohio* is an Indian name; not, *The* Ohio is an Indian name.

5. A Harvard and an Amherst man came home together; not, A Harvard and Amherst man came home together.

XXIX. APPOSITIVES.

The meaning or reference of a noun or pronoun is sometimes made clear or emphatic by means of another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing.

Example: Eliot, the apostle to the Indians, was a noble man.

A noun used to explain, identify, or emphasize another noun or pronoun, is called an **appositive**.

The noun or pronoun whose meaning is thus made clearer is said to be **modified** by the appositive. In its use,

[1] There may seem to be an exception in the case of such words as *union*, *one*, etc.; but the former of these words begins with the sound of consonant *y*, and the latter with that of consonant *w*. (See page 9, notes 2 and 4.) Good use sanctions *a union*, *such a one*, etc.

therefore, the appositive resembles the adjective, and may properly be called an **adjective modifier**.

The appositive, especially if consisting of more than one word, is usually set off by commas.

Exercise 1.

Point out the appositive in each sentence below; also the subject and predicate.

1. I myself witnessed the inauguration.
2. My son Max is of age; his brother John is sixteen.
3. The disciples stood on the bank of the river Jordan.
4. Napoleon III., Emperor of France, was defeated at Sedan.
5. "Evangeline," a tale of Acadia, was written by Longfellow.
6. What do you know of Homer, the blind poet?
7. Washington, our national capital, is on the Potomac.
8. We shall be joined by Nelson, Mr. Gray's eldest son.
9. "In His Name," a story by Rev. E. E. Hale, is very popular.
10. John Adams, the second president, lived in Quincy, Mass.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Name the appositives in the following sentences, and tell which of them should be set off by commas, and why.
(*b*) Name the subject and the predicate in each sentence.

1. Milton the blind poet is ranked below the poet Homer.
2. 'Tis chanticleer the shepherd's clock announcing day.
3. How grandly earnest was Paul the apostle to the Gentiles!
4. You yourself have sometimes excused her anger.
5. Now Philomel sweet songstress charmed the night.
6. The Bible makes frequent use of the number seven.
7. Webster the orator and statesman was born in New Hampshire.
8. We the people of the United States in order to form, etc.
9. What do you know of William the Conqueror?
10. Cadet Prince has returned to West Point.
11. The crown was offered to Richard the king's brother.

XXX. VERBS.

Exercise 1.

(*a*) In each of the following sentences, point out the subject and the predicate.

1. Fishes swim.
2. Birds fly.
3. Indians live in wigwams.
4. The old horse died.
5. The young man fell.
6. These pupils learn rapidly.
7. A tree stood near the house.
8. Jane wrote a good letter.

(*b*) What word in each of the foregoing sentences tells something, or makes an assertion?

(*c*) What word in each sentence names the thing of which the assertion is made?

The word used in a sentence to make an assertion is called a verb.

The verb and the words used with it to make a complete assertion are together called the **entire predicate.**

The word in a sentence which names the thing of which an assertion is made, is called the **simple** (unmodified) **subject.** (The unmodified subject may be either a noun or a pronoun.)

The simple subject and its modifiers taken together are called the **entire subject.**

The entire subject and the entire predicate taken together make a complete sentence.

Exercise 2.

In the following sentences, point out the simple subject, the verb, and the entire predicate.

1. A single hay-cart creaks slowly down the dusty road.
2. The thirsty cattle drank eagerly of the pure water.
3. Did you hear the moaning of the wind?
4. The live thunder leaps from peak to peak.
5. An investment in knowledge pays the best interest.

XXXI. VERBS (*continued*).

Some verbs assert action; some assert existence; and some assert state, or condition.

Examples: Canaries sing. (Action.)
God is. (Being, or existence.)
Mother rests. (State, or condition.)

Exercise.

In each of the following sentences, separate the subject from the predicate, point out the verb, and tell whether it asserts action, being, or state.

1. He sleeps well.
2. Point toward the north.
3. The house stands on the hill.
4. The river rose rapidly.
5. We removed his doubts.
6. The snow melts rapidly.
7. The teacher enrolled fifty pupils.
8. Fifty workmen were in the mill.
9. The shawls lie on the shelf.
10. Lay the shawls on the counter.
11. Our country stretches from sea to sea.
12. A cloud hung over his prospects.
13. Thy people became my people.
14. I learned the amount of his loss.
15. He examined the records.
16. You heard the news.
17. My friend remains in Paris.
18. The orator held the audience spellbound.
19. This steamer plies between Boston and Portland.
20. That was the dream of my boyhood.
21. On the hillside hung a ray of sunset.
22. Can man's endeavor chain the wingéd day?
23. The moon snatches her pale fire from the sun.
24. Tradition sheds a charm on the remote past.
25. At sunrise we struck our tents.
26. The time seemed ripe for action.
27. The light widens into perfect day.
28. Gladly the martyr laid down his life.
29. Now approached the long-expected herald.
30. The trees bowed down their summits of green.

XXXII. VERB–PHRASES.

(1) Change the following sentences from the declarative to the interrogative form.

Canaries sing. *God exists.* *Mother rested.*

(2) Have you used more or fewer words in each interrogative sentence than are given in the declarative?

(3) Without omitting any of the words, change into declarative sentences the three interrogative sentences just formed.

Of how many words does each predicate consist now, and what are they?

Two or more words used together in a sentence to make an assertion are called a **verb-phrase.**

The predicates, *do sing*, *does exist*, and *did rest*, in the sentences you have formed, are verb-phrases.

In the sentences, *The canary has been singing* and *The canary may have been singing*, "*has been singing*" and "*may have been singing*" are verb-phrases, one consisting of three words, and the other of four.

The words forming a verb-phrase are not always used in immediate succession, as you have already seen in the interrogative sentences. So also in the sentence, *He may not have really disobeyed me*, "*may have disobeyed*" is the verb-phrase although interrupted by the words *not* and *really*.

It frequently happens that the parts of a verb-phrase are widely separated.

Examples:

He *might* in one sense *have been* a judge of poetry.

An Oxford degree *may*, at its best, *represent* the noblest scholarship.

Never before *had* our people *been* so united.

Exercise.

Point out the verb-phrases in the following sentences.

1. We should have listened to him at first.
2. That voice can faintly reach us.
3. I can hardly see its outline.
4. You may be amazed at this.
5. He has not retired from the seat of action.
6. Thus may we surely hear the footsteps of the Maker.
7. Can a spider weave such a beautiful web?
8. His course has always been marked by prudence.
9. What do these words really prove?
10. Never hath man seen the form of God.

XXXIII. TRANSITIVE VERBS AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

In the sentence, *The dog frightened the bird*, the noun *bird* is the name of the thing that receives the action expressed by the verb.

A verb that expresses an action, feeling, or emotion that takes effect upon some person or thing is called a **transitive verb.**

When the name of the person or thing which receives the action expressed by the verb is a part of the predicate, it is called the **object** of the verb. Thus in the sentence given above *bird* is the object of the verb *frightened*.

In the sentence, *The man walks rapidly*, the verb *walks* expresses an action that does not take effect upon any person or thing; it is, therefore, not transitive.

A verb that expresses being or state, or an action that does not take effect upon any person or thing, is called an **intransitive verb.**

	Transitive.	Intransitive.
Examples:	The cat catches mice.	The cat squalls.
	A man heard a noise.	A man rode by.
	Some earn money.	Henry went home.

Exercise.

(*a*) In the sentences below, separate each subject from its predicate.

(*b*) Point out the verbs and verb-phrases, and tell whether each is transitive or intransitive, and why.

1. The farmer plows his field.
2. The train moves rapidly.
3. Have you heard the news?
4. He had done his task well.
5. The baby sleeps quietly.
6. The storm grows furious.
7. The Athenians felt the shock.
8. The wind has torn the flag.
9. The eagle flies very high.
10. A girl took the honors.
11. I had just taken your letter from the office.
12. Sweet lullabies the mother was singing to her babe.
13. The fishermen will spread their nets in the sun.

XXXIV. TRANSITIVE VERBS AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS (*continued*).

Certain verbs may at one time be used transitively, at another time intransitively. For example, we may say, *The wind blew furiously*. In this sentence, the verb *blew* is intransitive, because it expresses an action that does not take effect upon some person or thing. But in the sentence, *The wind blew the snow*, the verb *blew* is transitive, because it is followed by the object *snow*.

An intransitive verb is often followed by a noun similar in meaning to the verb; as, *He ran a race*. Such a noun is regarded as the object of the verb.

Exercise I.

(*a*) Make five sentences, each containing one of the following verbs used first transitively, and then intransitively.

Run, fly, draw, speak, wave.

(*b*) Name the five objects of the transitive verbs, and tell why they are called objects.

Exercise 2.

Of each of the following verbs, state whether it is transitive or intransitive; also name the object of each transitive verb.

1. The bank may break, the factory burn.
2. We will gather these fallen twigs and burn them.
3. It [mercy] becomes the throned monarch better than his crown.
4. The child becomes a man.
5. When I wake I am still with thee.
6. Night wanes, the vapors disappear, and light awakes the world.
7. Watch thou, and wake when others sleep.
8. I watched the early glories of her eyes
   As men for daybreak watch the eastern skies.
9. The silent hours steal on,
   And flaky darkness breaks within the east.
10. The bottles break, and the wine is spilled.
11. A bruised reed will he not break.

XXXV. COMPLETE VERBS AND INCOMPLETE VERBS.

Some verbs form a complete predicate, while others do not. In the sentence, *The wind blows*, the verb *blows* forms the entire predicate, and the sense is complete. But in the groups of words, *The roads are*, *Josephine became*, something is needed in each case to express the complete thought. If we say, *The roads are dusty*, *Josephine became queen*, the adjective *dusty* and the noun *queen* make the sense complete.

Verbs, therefore, may again be divided into two classes; viz. **complete verbs** and **incomplete verbs.**

A **complete verb** is one that, without help, will form a complete predicate.

An **incomplete verb** is one that requires the addition of one or more words to complete the predicate.

Whatever *must* be added to a verb to complete the predicate is called the **complement.** Therefore, in deciding whether a verb is complete or incomplete, the question is not, what *may* be added to make the meaning fuller, but whether something *must* be added to make the sense complete.

Thus, to the sentence, *Trees grow*, the word *rapidly* (*tall*, *yonder*, etc.) may be added to make the meaning fuller; but the sense is complete without the addition of any other word. The verb *grow* is therefore complete.

But the expressions, *James lifted*, *Nelson became*, *Washington crossed*, are evidently unfinished, and some word or words must be added. These verbs, therefore, are incomplete.

Exercise.

(*a*) Tell which of the following groups of words are sentences, and why.

(*b*) Tell which verbs are complete and which incomplete.

(*c*) Add suitable complements wherever they are needed.

1. The trees grow.
2. The lady expects.
3. The farmer plows.
4. The baby sleeps.
5. The young man was.
6. Ten boys are.
7. The weather seems.
8. I will arise.
9. The ship may float.
10. Winter approaches.
11. Washington crossed.
12. Aristides was called.
13. The baker kneaded.
14. Time flies.
15. This firm may raise.
16. They thirst.
17. Why will they prolong?
18. The house fell.
19. The woodman felled.
20. The blacksmith uses.
21. This color becomes.
22. Prices advanced.
23. Night retires.
24. Riches increase.
25. Murmurs arose.
26. The prince will bestow.
27. A dozen men were.
28. The governor withheld.

XXXVI. COMPLETE VERBS AND INCOMPLETE VERBS (*continued*).

Transitive Verbs.

A transitive verb does not make a complete predicate, because it must be followed by a complement to name the person or thing that receives the action. The complement of a transitive verb is called the object complement, or more commonly, the **object.**

The woman spins the yarn.

In this sentence, the verb *spins* predicates (asserts) *spinning* of the woman, and the object *yarn* tells what she spins.

When one term changes or adds to the meaning of another, the former is said to **modify** the latter.

It should be noticed that the object *yarn* neither describes nor identifies the subject. We say it modifies the verb because it more fully explains its meaning.

The boy found a squirrel's nest.

In this sentence the verb *found* is transitive because it is followed by an object. *Nest* is the object because it tells what the boy *found.*

The object complement of a transitive verb is sometimes a noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing as the subject.

He hurt himself. They hid themselves in the forest.

The object *himself* denotes the same person as the subject *he;* and *themselves* has the same meaning as *they.*

Exercise.

(*a*) Tell whether the verb in each of the following sentences is transitive or intransitive, and why.

(*b*) Name the object of each transitive verb, and tell why it is the object.

1. The wind sweeps the blossoms from the apple trees.
2. The mason built the blacksmith's forge.
3. The sun rose upon a race of slaves.
4. The blacksmith shoes the mason's horse.
5. Anthracite coal burns very slowly.
6. Vast herds of buffaloes once grazed on the plains.
7. Dickens wrote "Dombey and Son."
8. Rome bound with oak her patriots' brows.
9. The ocean eagle soared from his nest.
10. The spires of the city swam in the blue morning vapors.

XXXVII. COMPLETE VERBS AND INCOMPLETE VERBS (*continued*).

Intransitive Verbs.

Some intransitive verbs are **complete** and others are **incomplete.**

The wind blows.

In this sentence, the intransitive verb *blows* forms a complete predicate, because no modifying word is needed to complete the sense.

The pupils are restless.

In this sentence, the verb *are* is incomplete, because some word is needed to complete the sense.

Beethoven was a musician.

Here the verb *was* is incomplete, and the noun complement *musician* is used to complete the sense.

The most common incomplete intransitive verbs are the following: —

Be (is, am, are, was, were), seem, become, look, sound, appear, feel, taste, smell, continue, remain.

These verbs are usually called **copulative** verbs, because they connect the complement with the subject.

Examples: The teacher *is* kind. The pupils *are* boys. The owl *looks* wise. Sugar *tastes* sweet. The lieutenant *became* captain.

Noun complements of intransitive verbs are called **predicate nouns.**

Adjective complements of intransitive verbs are called **predicate adjectives.**

A complement, whether noun or adjective, combined with a copulative verb, forms the **simple predicate.**

Such noun complements and adjective complements are called **attributes** of the subject, because they denote certain properties or characteristics attributed, or ascribed, to the subject, and thus modify or explain its meaning.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the complements in the sentences below, and tell which are noun attributes and which are adjective attributes.

(*b*) Point out the simple predicates.

1. The calling of the locomotive engineer is hazardous.
2. Alexander Hamilton was a statesman.
3. Each house shall be the judge of the elections of its own members.
4. This author's knowledge of his theme is extensive.
5. The clouds look threatening.
6. The Mile-End road is a magnificent thoroughfare.
7. Locomotive engineers are a picked body of men.

8. The death of the beautiful flowers always seems sad.
9. Comment is unnecessary.
10. Of his ability, all his friends appear confident.
11. The nightingale is sovereign of song.

Notice that the noun complement designates the same person or thing as the subject, and that the adjective complement describes the subject.

Notice also that the noun complement may represent many qualities of the subject, and that the adjective complement represents only one.

XXXVIII. *BE* AS A COMPLETE VERB.

While the verb *be* does not usually form a complete predicate, there are numerous instances in which this verb asserts mere existence, and is as complete as any other.

Examples: The grass of the field which to-day *is* (exists).
He that cometh to God must believe that He *is*.

The word *there* often introduces a sentence in which the verb *be* is used as a complete predicate. In such cases the real subject follows the verb, and the word *there* is used merely to introduce the sentence. This usually permits a stronger and more agreeable arrangement of the sentence.

Examples: There is no occasion for anxiety.
There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,
Than are dreamt of in your philosophy.
There is a reaper whose name is Death.

Rewrite the last three examples, omitting in each case the word *there*.

Exercise.

Point out the entire subject and the entire predicate in each sentence below, and tell which predicate verbs are complete, and which incomplete.

1. The entire structure will be fireproof.
2. Time was when these plains were a desert.
3. The Hudson is a beautiful river.
4. There is a land of pure delight.
5. The parlors of the Profile House will be spacious and elegant.
6. There were giants in those days.
7. Lake Champlain has long been the angler's paradise.
8. Into the valley of Death rode the six hundred.
9. The society of Cape May seems refined and hospitable.
10. All things that are, shall decay.

XXXIX. REVIEW EXERCISE.

The muffled drum's sad roll has beat
  The soldier's last tattoo;
No more on life's parade shall meet
  That brave and fallen few.
On fame's eternal camping-ground
  Their silent tents are spread,
And glory guards, with solemn round,
  The bivouac of the dead.

(*a*) Write the first proposition in the foregoing stanza. What is the subject? What is the predicate?

(*b*) What is the second proposition in the stanza? Point out its subject and predicate.

(*c*) Point out the adjectives in the stanza, and the nouns which they modify. Are they common or proper nouns, and why?

(*d*) Point out the verbs and the verb-phrases in the stanza, and name the simple subject of each.

XL. ADVERBS.

There the young artist received instruction, and afterwards his paintings were finished more satisfactorily.

In this sentence, *there* tells the place in which instruction was received; *afterwards* tells the time when the paintings were finished; *satisfactorily* tells the manner in which they were finished; and *more* tells the degree of satisfaction.

Or, *there* answers the question, Where did he receive instruction? — *afterwards* answers the question, When were the paintings finished? — *satisfactorily* answers the question, How were the paintings finished? — and *more* answers the question, How satisfactorily?

Exercise.

Tell what the Italicized words in the following sentences are used for, or tell what questions they will answer.

1. Horses *now* travel faster than *formerly*.
2. The pupils study *faithfully*, and recite their lessons *well*.
3. Our work moves *smoothly*, and we shall *soon* finish it.
4. The polls were opened *early*, and the votes were deposited *rapidly*.
5. *Here* and *there* could be heard the sharp crack of the rifle, as the scouts came *unexpectedly* upon the foe.

Such words as we have been considering in this lesson are called **adverbs**, because they are usually added to verbs to explain, or in some way to modify, their meaning.

Adverbs that answer the question *when* are called adverbs of **time**. Those that answer the question *how* are adverbs of **manner**. Those that answer the question *where* are adverbs of **place**. Those that answer the question *how much*, *how little*, or *to what extent*, are adverbs of **degree**.

XLI. ADVERBS MODIFYING VERBS.

Exercise.

I meet my friend daily in the city.

In the sentence above, *daily* is an adverb, because it modifies the verb *meet*. It is an adverb of **time**, because it tells *when* I meet *my friend*.

(*a*) Select the adverbs in the following sentences, tell *why* they are adverbs, and name the verbs modified.

(*b*) Tell what kind of adverbs they are and give the reason.

When in doubt as to the use of a modifying word, omit it and note the change in the meaning of the sentence.

1. Now comes the sport.
2. The pupil reaches school early.
3. This boy is doing well, but that one badly.
4. The children ran about gleefully.
5. The clock that stands there has never run regularly.
6. Herein lies the difficulty.
7. An ox team always moves slowly.
8. Benevolent men usually give liberally.
9. Hither comes the little child whose heart is light and gay.
10. Evil doers are generally punished.
11. He has recently grown deaf, and will soon resign his office.
12. Promptly but sadly the messenger started thither.
13. He often speaks thus; his sister seldom.
14. Yonder the flag once waved triumphantly.
15. The historian shows clearly that the councilors were unwise.
16. Here they eagerly sought for gold.
17. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
18. The fairest flowers soon wither.
19. His eloquent words were indelibly fixed in my mind.
20. Does the prisoner still expect pardon?
21. Speak gently to the erring.

XLII. ADVERBS MODIFYING ADJECTIVES.

Adverbs may be used in sentences to show a great degree of the quality expressed by adjectives; or that the quality is sufficient, or slight, or not really present.

How white with snow are the distant hills!

In this sentence, the word *how* is used to imply that the hills are very white; that is, *how*, thus used, shows a great degree of *whiteness*, the quality expressed by the adjective *white*.

Exercise.

(*a*) Read the sentences, omitting the adverbs.

(*b*) What word in each sentence seems to be modified (strengthened or weakened) by the adverb?

(*c*) To what part of speech does the modified word belong?

1. All exercises should be written with very great care.
2. The winter has been extremely cold.
3. You were somewhat late this morning.
4. The weather has been rather disagreeable all the week.
5. The sky is nearly black with thick, angry clouds.
6. The old oak is scarcely alive.
7. The pioneer's struggles were wholly vain.
8. How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood!
9. She is an uncommonly good scholar.
10. The car was hardly fit for service.
11. The less forward youth may become the more intelligent man.
12. The elder son shows a still livelier wit.
13. The most popular plants are the best.
14. Others have been found equally fickle.
15. Chatham's public life was nobly consistent.
16. Far nobler fields of triumph were his.
17. Peaches so large and luscious are somewhat rare.

XLIII. ADVERBS MODIFYING ADVERBS.

An adverb may be used in a sentence to increase or to diminish the force of another adverb.

Example: William writes *more* rapidly but *less* neatly than his sister.

Exercise.

(*a*) Read the sentences below, omitting the words in Italics.

(*b*) What word in each sentence seems to be modified (strengthened or weakened) by the Italicized word?

(*c*) To what part of speech does the modified word belong?

1. The brakeman was *very* severely injured.
2. The man cut his finger *quite* off.
3. His pulse was beating *rather* feebly.
4. Most children eat *too* rapidly.
5. Whose performance was *most* highly commended?
6. *How* dearly that child loves his mother!
7. The wind has been blowing *somewhat* fiercely.
8. Let thine eyes look *right* forward.
9. He is *nearly* always discouraged.
10. The train is *almost* never on time.

Adverbs are words used to modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

XLIV. CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

Exercise I.

Fill each blank below with an adverb of **time**. Choose with care, and, if possible, avoid repetition.

1. We shall —— see who are ready.
2. —— there went up a mighty shout.
3. The patient will improve ——.
4. We should —— tell the truth.

5. I will take your place ——.
6. The fields will —— be plowed.
7. Your letters should be mailed ——.
8. That thing should —— happen.
9. —— the storm had burst.
10. —— he wrote often; now I —— hear from him.
11. —— no European had seen this land.
12. —— shall we three meet again?

Exercise 2.

Fill each of the blanks below with an adverb of **place or direction.**

1. Why do Americans go —— for fine scenery?
2. You will find faults —— you look for them.
3. —— can be found wealthier men.
4. The picnickers started —— in high glee.
5. —— can be found truer patriots?
6. The storm is drawing ——.
7. My duty and my interest both urged me ——.
8. —— waves our banner.
9. Without were fightings, —— were fears.
10. Why seek for that which is ——?
11. —— sleep the brave?
12. The pendulum swings —— and ——.

Exercise 3.

Fill each blank below with an adverb of **manner.**

1. The mother speaks ——.
2. The tree grows ——.
3. Her fingers moved ——.
4. The maid did her work ——.
5. The message was sent ——.
6. The children will watch ——.
7. The dust will be laid ——.
8. How —— they lift the wounded man!
9. No one regrets having spoken ——.
10. The waves beat —— against the cliff.

XLV. CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS (*continued*).

Exercise.

The child is —— dull.
The child is rather dull.

The road was —— badly damaged.
The road was very badly damaged.

Copy the following sentences and fill each blank, as in the examples above, with an adverb of degree, showing how much or how little of the quality is expressed by the following adjective or adverb. Try to use each modifying word but once.

1. The night was —— dark.
2. The danger is —— remote.
3. His strength is —— exhausted.
4. The combat has been —— fierce.
5. The day was —— hot.
6. The buds are only —— open.
7. The task is —— done.
8. You drove —— rapidly.
9. The letter came —— late.
10. —— kindly his reproof was given.
11. Her assistance is —— welcome.
12. It was pleasant to see him walk —— feebly.
13. The letter must be copied —— neatly.
14. The man has been —— troubled.
15. I had been —— cordially received and entertained.
16. The ground is —— covered with snow.

We have now found four kinds of adverbs: —

(1) Adverbs of **time** (when?).
(2) Adverbs of **place** (where?).
(3) Adverbs of **manner** (how?).
(4) Adverbs of **degree** (how much or how little?).

As subclasses under adverbs of time we may note: adverbs of **number**, — as, *once*, *twice*, *thrice*; and adverbs of **order**, — as, *first*, *secondly*, etc.

The degree of confidence with which a statement is made, is often shown by an adverb like *certainly*, *perhaps*, *undoubtedly*.

Example: I will *surely* write you, *perhaps* on Tuesday.

Such words are **modal adverbs**. *Yes*, *nay*, *no*, and *not*, are also classed as modal adverbs.

XLVI. PHRASES.

Exercise I.

The cliffs along the river *are steep and high.*

The group of words, *along the river*, in the sentence above, is used to modify the noun *cliffs*, by telling what cliffs are steep and high.

(*a*) What does each Italicized group of words in the following sentences tell?

(*b*) State whether the group is used as an adjective or as an adverb.

1. The walls *of the building* were very thick.
2. The waves swept the sailors *from the deck.*
3. *For three months* the captain lived *with me.*
4. The orbit *of the earth* is an ellipse.
5. *In 1620* the Pilgrims landed *at Plymouth.*
6. The fire *in the grate* is burning brightly.
7. The tree *behind the house* was struck *by lightning.*
8. The Psalms *of David* are found *in the Old Testament.*
9. *After dinner* we will talk *to him.*
10. The sign *on the post* was seen *by every traveler.*
11. Heaven *from all creatures* hides the book *of fate.*
12. The wheels *of weary life at last* stood still.

A group of words used as a part of speech, and having neither subject nor predicate, is a phrase.

A phrase takes its particular name from the part of speech for which it is used. Thus we have, in the sentences above, **adjective phrases** and **adverb phrases.**[1]

Exercise 2

Walls *of the building*. Swept *from the deck*.

(*a*) Write as in the first example above, the nouns that are modified by phrases in the foregoing exercise, and after each noun write the phrase that modifies it.

(*b*) Write as in the second example above, the verbs that are modified by phrases, and after each verb write the phrase or phrases that modify it.

XLVII. PHRASES (*continued*).

Exercise I.

A path *of greater safety* = A *safer* path.
Cheerful *at all times* = *Always* cheerful.

In the same way use adjectives or adverbs in place of the phrases in Italics below.

1. An act *of courage*.
2. Acted *upon honor*.
3. Scenes *in nature*.
4. Joys *of home*.
5. A coat lined *with fur*.
6. Resorts *of fashion*.
7. Emotion *beyond control*.
8. The history *of America*.
9. Heat *of the sun*.
10. *Without excuse*.
11. Working *in earnest*.
12. Disturbances *of the atmosphere*.
13. Told *with simplicity*.
14. Send *without delay*.
15. Mine *by right*.
16. Two worked *to advantage*.
17. *In an excited manner*.
18. Returned *in triumph*.
19. It was done *in haste*.
20. A reputation *without spot*.

[1] Noun phrases will be studied in Part II.

Exercise 2.

The water *gradually* subsided = *By degrees* the water subsided.

Soon he awoke = *After a short time* he awoke.

In the same way, use phrases in place of the adjectives and adverbs in Italics below.

1. Fond of *open-air* life.
2. The *people's* welfare.
3. *Sorrowful* moments.
4. A *resting* place.
5. *Domestic* joys.
6. A *devout* spirit.
7. *Botanical* study.
8. *Human* needs.
9. A *royal* gift.
10. A *guiltless* soul.
11. *Floral* designs.
12. *Local* color.
13. *Instantly* ceased.
14. Spoke *very angrily.*
15. Flew *afar.*
16. *Always* hopeful.
17. Cheered *enthusiastically.*
18. A journey *cheaply* taken.
19. *Morally* pure.
20. *Quietly* withdrew.
21. Were brought *together.*
22. Was *easily* done.
23. *Exceedingly* important.
24. *Musically* inclined.

XLVIII. PREPOSITIONS.

Examine the following sentence.

For a week the boys in camp lived upon fish which they caught in the lake.

What question is answered by the phrase, *for a week? upon fish? in the lake?*

What part of speech is the last word in each phrase?

Turn to Lesson XLVI., and tell to what part of speech the last word in every phrase belongs.

You find that the last word in each of these phrases is either a noun or a pronoun. The first word in all such phrases (*of*, *in*, *for*, *from*, *on*, etc.) is called a **preposition** (*placed before*).

A preposition is a word used before a noun or a pronoun to explain its relation to another word in the sentence.

The noun or pronoun used with a preposition in making a phrase is called its **object.**

The preposition really connects the phrase of which it forms a part, with the word which the phrase modifies. For example, in the sentence, *William walked from the city*, *from* is a preposition connecting the phrase, *from the city*, with the verb *walked*. The phrase modifies the verb by telling from what place William walked.

A preposition defines the relation which exists between the noun or pronoun that follows it and the word modified by the phrase.

The modified word may be a noun, or pronoun, an adjective, a verb, or an adverb; as,—

NOUNS.	VERBS.
A *head* of hair.	He *stood* by a fountain.
A *house* with a piazza.	She *wrote* with a pen.
ADJECTIVES.	**ADVERBS.**
He was *pale* with anger.	He spoke *wisely* for a child.
He is *free* from care.	They provided *sufficiently* for my needs.

Nouns are frequently used as adverbs to express when, how, how much, how far, etc.

Examples: I met him *last Thursday*. You wrote *three times*. He walked *twenty miles* yesterday. The pole is *ten feet* long. He went *home*.

In such cases as the foregoing, the nouns are parts of adverb phrases from which the prepositions have disappeared.

Examples: I met him (*on*) last Thursday. He went (*to his*) home.

Exercise.

The man at the mast-head saw the sun just rising above his horizon.

PHRASES.	WHAT THEY MODIFY.	KINDS.	PREPOSITIONS.
at the mast-head	man	adjective	at
above his horizon	rising	adverbial	above

Point out the phrases in the following sentences, tell what they modify, and whether they are adjective or adverbial; also name the prepositions.

1. The fortress stands on the top of a hill two hundred feet high.
2. Our forefathers purchased liberty with their blood.
3. The two tramps hung about the station till midnight.
4. The general led his army through the valley.
5. Please reserve a lower berth in the sleeping-car that leaves Cleveland for Cincinnati on Monday.
6. The eagle hovered over the valley, and then, darting through the air, struck his talons into the quivering flesh of the poor lamb.
7. The home of the bear is amidst the caves of the mountain-side.
8. He was banished from the city by his patron.

XLIX. CONJUNCTIONS.

Exercise I.

Roses are fragrant. Pinks are fragrant.

What is the subject of the first statement? of the second? What is the predicate of the first statement? of the second? Combine the statements without repeating any words. What word now connects the two subjects?

(*a*) In the same way combine the following statements, omitting unnecessary words, and tell what words are connected, and how.

1. Jane was kind. Jane was patient.
2. Mary was diligent. Lucy was diligent.
3. William went there promptly. William went there cheerfully.
4. Jason is a painter. Jason is a glazier.
5. Ellen writes. Ellen ciphers.

(*b*) Expand each of the following sentences into two connected statements.

1. Arthur was poor but proud.
2. Kate or Lottie will sing.
3. There stands a proud though childlike form.
4. Thanks were then spoken to the children and to their parents.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) How many and what statements are there in each of the following sentences?

1. Abraham Lincoln wrote the Emancipation Proclamation.
2. The stars shone brightly, and the night was bitterly cold.
3. We were very hungry, but our knapsacks had been left behind, and no food could be bought at the farm-houses.

(*b*) In the second sentence, what word connects the statements? In the third sentence, what word connects the first and second statements? the second and third?

Words used to connect words, phrases, or propositions, are classed as conjunctions.

A word and a phrase performing the same office are sometimes connected by a conjunction

Example: I was *sick* and *in prison* (imprisoned).

Exercise 3.

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell what they connect.

1. The birds sang and the plowboy whistled.
2. Man must work or he will be worthless.
3. The prisoner was innocent, though the crowd thought him guilty.

4. We love him because he first loved us.
5. We listened, but we heard nothing.
6. She was ill and she was very poor.
7. The forest was dense; moreover the sky was clouded.
8. The time was short, still he could not decide.
9. He had won, yet he was not happy.
10. Wealth will not bring happiness, nor will fame yield peace.
11. The trouble must be endured, since it cannot be cured.

L. SENTENCES, SIMPLE AND COMPOUND.

A simple statement, question, or command may be a complete sentence; as, *I telegraphed to my friend.* Or it may form only part of a sentence; as, *I telegraphed to my friend, and he came immediately to my house.*

A sentence that contains but one statement, question, or command is called a **simple sentence.**

Examples: Washington's army was composed of raw recruits.
Was Washington ever known to despair?
Stand by your guns, my brave fellows!

A simple sentence has but one subject and one predicate, though either or both of these may be compound, as shown in the examples below.

Examples:—

Their glory and their might shall perish. (Compound subject and simple predicate.)

She raised her jeweled hand and flung her tresses back. (Simple subject and compound predicate.)

The forests and the rivers sang and shouted. (Compound subject and compound predicate.)

Point out the subject and predicate in each of the foregoing examples.

Two or more independent statements, questions, or commands, joined together by one or more conjunctions, either expressed or understood form a **compound sentence.**

Examples: —

Washington's army was composed of raw recruits, but he was never known to despair.

I must refuse your generous offer, or I must break my word with my employer.

Do you ask me to prove false to my word, and shall I become a traitor to my country?

Stand by your guns, and never give up the ship, my brave lads.

Point out the independent propositions[1] in each of the four sentences above, and the conjunction that joins them.

LI. SENTENCES, SIMPLE AND COMPOUND (*continued*).

Exercise 1.

(*a*) Tell whether the following sentences are simple or compound, and separate each compound sentence into simple statements.

(*b*) Point out each subject and predicate.

1. Some men are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.
2. Seek, and ye shall find.
3. For a week, bread and water formed the diet of the prisoner.
4. The statements of the plaintiff were denied by the defendant.
5. Listen, my children, and you shall hear
   Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere.
6. Come to the sunset tree!
   The day is past and gone;
   The woodman's ax lies free,
   And the reaper's work is done.

[1] See page 17.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Tell whether the following sentences are simple or compound, and why.

(*b*) In each sentence, point out the subject and the predicate, and tell whether each is simple or compound.

1. Professor Agassiz and his wife traveled extensively in South America.
2. Madame C—— played and sung during the evening.
3. Doctor Kane and Lieutenant Greely conducted expeditions into the Arctic Ocean, and suffered many hardships.

(*c*) In such sentences as, *Four and five make nine*, *John and Henry are brothers*, does the word *and* connect statements or words?

(*d*) In *He told the story to me and to Mr. Brown*, does the word *and* connect statements, phrases, or words?

LII. CLAUSES, ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB.

Exercise.

Tell the use of the Italicized groups of words.

1. The boy *who was sick* has returned home.
2. Stand *where you are.*
3. The raw recruits proved to be men *of courage.*
4. This is the gentleman *whom I met in Washington.*
5. They *that are whole* need not a physician.
6. I learned this poem *when I was a child.*

(*a*) What is a phrase? Which of the Italicized groups of words in the foregoing exercise are phrases? Why?

A group of words used as a part of speech, and having a subject and predicate, is a clause.

A clause takes its particular name from the part of speech for which it is used.

(*b*) Which of the foregoing Italicized groups of words are clauses? Tell the kind of clause, and give your reason.

(*c*) Point out the subject and predicate in each clause.

(*d*) How does a clause differ from a phrase in form? How in use?

LIII. NOUN CLAUSES.

Examine the following sentences.

The story is true. That my friend has lost his watch is true.

Name the subject in the first sentence: the predicate. In the second sentence, we have the same predicate as in the first. What is now the subject? Is the subject a phrase or a clause? Why? If the subject were written by itself, which word would be unnecessary? Is the subject used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb? Give a reason for your answer.

I heard the report.
I heard that the train had been wrecked.

What words in the second sentence take the place of the words *the report* in the first? What part of speech is the word *report* in the first sentence? What is the complement of the verb *heard* in the second sentence? Is the complement a phrase or a clause? Why? What kind?

The news is a disappointment.
The news is, that a cold wave is coming.

What is the complement in the first sentence? in the second sentence? Is the latter complement a phrase or a clause? What kind? What name do we give to a verb that requires a complement?

In this and the preceding lesson, we have studied three kinds of clauses — adjective, adverb, and noun.

A sentence containing one independent proposition and one or more dependent propositions, or clauses, is called a **complex sentence.** (See page 17.)

Exercise.

(*a*) Which of the sentences below are simple and which complex? Give the reason in each case.

(*b*) Classify the clauses as adjective, adverb, or noun.

1. A strange feeling had been growing upon him while he read.
2. A young man who lived in a cabin on Blue Hill sent out a careful report of the year's storms.
3. Enjoyment may afford strength to mind and body.
4. That the gate had been left open was quite forgotten.
5. Arts followed where Rome's eagle led.
6. Four wet and muddy boys walked in at the gate.
7. The home of Florence Nightingale is walled about by the prayers that rise for it from a thousand grateful hearts.
8. Before the physician arrived, the man who had lain unconscious was restored.
9. You will find your books where you left them.
10. "You have done me a real service," he said.
11. Life is what we make it.
12. While he slept the enemy came.

LIV. CLAUSAL ANALYSIS.

Exercise.

(First oral and then written.)

Mary has learned her lesson while you have been idle.

CLAUSE.	WHAT IT MODIFIES.	KIND.
while you have been idle	has learned	adverb

(*a*) Point out each clause in the following sentences. Tell what it modifies, and what kind of clause it is.

1. I rank him with men who speak for justice.
2. Now select the men whom you will have in your company.
3. That he has failed[1] is now admitted.
4. The thirsty animal makes a rush when he scents the water springs.
5. They must still love the land in which they have left the bones of their sires.
6. Strike till the last armed foe expires.
7. He who is gone, left me in thy care.
8. Friends whose memory we cherish so dearly, once trod these paths.
9. You helped me when I was in need.
10. Let us use our strength before we lose it.
11. Why he delays, perplexes me.
12. Wolves are seldom seen where the population is dense.
13. That you have wronged me, doth appear in this.
14. Conscience is a great ledger-book in which all our offenses are written and registered.
15. He cometh unto you with a tale which holdeth children from play and old men from the chimney-corner.
16. They, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward in the night.

A compound sentence may be complex in one or more of its members.

Examples: The rose is fairest when 'tis budding new,
And hope is brightest when it dawns from fears.

And when he played, the atmosphere
Was filled with magic, and the ear
Caught echoes of that Harp of Gold
Whose music had so weird a sound.

(*b*) Point out the complex members in the examples above.

(*c*) What clauses are in the following sentence, and how are they connected?

He is the man who was so poor, or who seemed poor.

[1] The noun clause, when used as a subject, is dependent upon the rest of the sentence for its meaning; but it is not a modifier.

LV. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

(Review Lesson XIX., page 33.)

In the expressions, *the man* who *is here; the child* whose *parents are dead; the gentleman to* whom *you spoke; the tree* which *was planted; the best boy* that *entered our school; we took such things* as *we wanted;* each word not in Italics evidently represents some noun in the same expression.

Point out the nouns for which the foregoing words stand.

These words, *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, and *as*, are pronouns because they stand for nouns, — their antecedents. They are conjunctive pronouns when they join to their antecedents the clauses in which the pronouns stand.

A **conjunctive pronoun** is one that connects a clause of which it forms a part to some word which the clause modifies.

Conjunctive pronouns are frequently called **relative pronouns**.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the clauses in the following sentences and tell what they modify.

(*b*) Point out each conjunctive pronoun and its antecedent.

1. They who live virtuously help those who come after.
2. Ventilation is a matter which few understand.
3. The peasant enjoyed his simple home with her who won his heart.
4. Here was a girl who never saw a flower.
5. He knew the arts in which the wise excel.
6. Those whom I reverence, I fear.
7. We have lost a neighbor whose heart knew others' woes.
8. Hold him in esteem whose hand has helped the poor.
9. Often I think of the beautiful town
   That is seated by the sea.

LVI. ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS.

Exercise 1.

(*a*) Rewrite the following extract from "The Sketch Book," using only simple sentences.

I am fond of loitering about country churches; and this was so delightfully situated, that it frequently attracted me. It stood on a knoll, round which a small stream made a beautiful bend, and then wound its way through a long reach of soft meadow scenery. The church was surrounded by yew-trees which seemed almost coeval with itself . . . I was seated there one still sunny morning, watching two laborers who were digging a grave.

(*b*) With the book closed, express the meaning of the extract, by combining your simple sentences in any way you choose.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Write the following story, using simple sentences as far as possible.

A Dishonest Beggar.

A dishonest beggar, finding himself reduced to his last penny, made up his mind that he would pretend to be dumb. He arrived at a town where he had begged once or twice before. In one of the streets he met a gentleman who had before given him money, and so remembered his face and spoke to him. The beggar made him no answer. "Hullo!" cried the gentleman, "how long have you been dumb?" "From the day of my birth," answered the beggar, forgetting himself.

(*b*) Rewrite the story of *A Dishonest Beggar*, recombining your simple sentences.

(*c*) Compare your story with the one in the book.

Note to the Teacher. — Such exercises are exceedingly valuable as a preparation for original composition. Material for practice may be selected from any well-written book.

LVII. INTERJECTIONS.

Words like *oh*, *O*, *ah*, *pshaw*, *humph*, *hurrah*, *alas*, etc., expressing sudden emotion on the part of the speaker or writer, — feelings of pain, pleasure, disgust, pity, contempt, etc., — do not form any part of the sentence; that is, they belong neither to the subject nor to the predicate.

They are called **interjections** (*thrown in* or *thrown between*).

A word used to express strong feeling, and not related to any other word in the sentence, is called an interjection.

Exercise.

Tell what feelings are expressed by the interjection in each sentence below.

1. Ah! bitter chill it was.
2. O how delicious are these autumn fruits!
3. Pshaw! your grievance is nothing.
4. What! you will rob me of my money and then take my life?
5. Thou too sail on, O ship of State!
6. Hark! I hear the note of a bluebird.
7. Alas, poor Yorick!
8. Zounds! I will hear no more of this.
9. Hurrah! the field is won.
10. Bravo! he has saved the child's life.
11. Oh! I die, Horatio.
12. O for a lodge in some vast wilderness!
13. O that those lips had language.

The interjection *O*, besides introducing an exclamation, is used for the sign of address, as in example 5 above; also to express a wish, as in example 12. *O* should never be followed by an exclamation point, and seldom by a comma.

Oh expresses deep feeling, whether of pleasure or pain, and is often followed by an exclamation point or a comma.

LVIII. USE DETERMINES CLASSIFICATION.

We have already learned that words are divided into classes, or parts of speech, according to their use in sentences. Hence it follows that a word is not a part of speech until it is used in a sentence.

Nearly all words may be used as different parts of speech in different sentences.

In the sentence, *My pen is a good one*, the word *pen* is a noun. In the sentence, *I will pen a short note*, the word *pen* is a verb.

NOTE TO THE TEACHER. — Let it be constantly borne in mind that in parsing or analysis the matter of first importance is the function, or use, of the part under consideration, because this use determines the classification of the words, phrases, and clauses.

Exercise.

Tell to what part of speech each Italicized word belongs, and why.

1. Let us go *forward*.
2. They will *forward* our plan.
3. Not all *forward* boys become able men
4. This happy home is *mine*.
5. That stalwart fellow works in a *mine*.
6. The enemy will *mine* the fort.
7. *Little* was expected of the miser's son.
8. That unwise student sleeps *little*.
9. A *little* child shall lead them.
10. The judge will *fine* the prisoner.
11. No one cares to pay the *fine*.
12. In *fine*, all prefer he should suffer.
13. *Fine* feathers do not make *fine* birds.
14. This *flag*-root is pungent.
15. These earnest leaders never *flag*.
16. Stand by the *flag*, my brave comrades.
17. In peasant or *divine*, true worth will shine.

18. The hand that made us is *divine*.
19. Who could *divine* the result?
20. These roses *diffuse* their perfume through the hall.
21. His style is too *diffuse*.
22. Youths and maidens are dancing on the *green*.
23. April showers bring the *green* grass.
24. We *mean* to shun the *mean* spirit of the miser.
25. For such kind effort, praise is *meet*.
26. We *meet* again in gladness.
27. After forty, some persons *age* rapidly.
28. What is the average *age* of man?
29. Can you match this *light* silk?
30. Forest fires *light* the whole region.
31. The morning *light* is breaking.
32. The cobbler's *last* will *last till* he has dropped his *last* coin into the *till*.
33. Jason was the *head* of the former enterprise.
34. Who *heads* this scheme?
35. We shall *lay* our plans to entertain a hundred delegates, clerical and *lay*.
36. It can *weather* the roughest gale.
37. The *weather*, to-day, is very fine.
38. The prisoner's *conduct* was always good.
39. The guide will *conduct* you by the nearest route.

LIX. QUOTATIONS, DIRECT AND INDIRECT.

The repetition of the exact words used by another in the expression of thought, is called a **direct quotation.**

When the thought of another is expressed in different words from those used by him, the expression is called an **indirect quotation.**

Examples: Webster said, "I still live." (Direct.)
Webster said that he still lived. (Indirect.)

In written composition, the direct quotation is inclosed within quotation marks, and is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. It begins with a capital letter.

The indirect quotation is usually introduced by the word *that*, a comma being placed before the *that*, unless the quotation consists of a single statement; no quotation marks are used, and the quotation does not begin with a capital.

Titles of books, pictures, poems, or newspapers, assumed names of writers, etc., are sometimes inclosed within quotation marks; as, Bryant's "*Thanatopsis*," the "*Sistine Madonna*," "*Gail Hamilton*," "*Auld Lang Syne*."

Exercise I.

Change the following sentences from the direct to the indirect form of quotation. Notice that, besides the difference in punctuation, the verbs and pronouns may require to be changed.

1. Tom said, "I shall try to run back into Plymouth, where I live."
2. Proudly exhibiting his double-eagle, Tom said, "Here is what I got for my labor."
3. The father said grimly, "That is very well, no doubt."
4. He muttered, "I alone am to blame."
5. Priscilla said to John Alden, "By these words I see how little you prize me."
6. The Puritan maiden said, "I have been thinking all day of the hedge-rows of England."
7. The poet cried, "Now that is after my own heart."
8. The maiden said, with gentle look, "You are welcome, Hiawatha."
9. Hypatia said, "I have done no wrong, and I fear no punishment."
10. "I am a plain man," said he, "and know nothing about argument."
11. "I am so sensible," Mr. Macaulay said, "of the kindness with which the House has listened to me, that I will detain you no longer."

Exercise 2.

Change the following passages from the indirect to the direct form.

1. Mr. Brougham said to his constituents, that he trusted himself once more in their faithful arms; he flung himself again on their protection; he called aloud to them to bear their own cause in their hearts.
2. Addison wrote in the *Spectator*, that when he looked upon the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy died in him; when he read the epitaphs of the beautiful, every inordinate desire went out; when he met with the grief of parents upon a tombstone, his heart melted with compassion.
3. The herald advanced, and proclaimed that these were prisoners taken in arms against the Roman senate and people.
4. Mr. Chapin said that we who dwell upon the land think too little of the privations of those who do business on the sea.
5. He was once heard to say that the child's grief throbs against the round of its little heart as heavily as the man's sorrow.
6. Jones said, that, as he was traveling one evening, and sat, dismal and homesick, in the cold car, he heard two men upon the seat before him talking of lectures.

LX. COMPOUND WORDS.

Two or more words used together to express one idea are usually compounded: they are sometimes written as one word, and sometimes joined by a hyphen; as, *inkstand*, *horseman*, *to-morrow*, *a five-cent fare*.

A compound word will frequently express quite a different idea from the one expressed when its parts are written separately. For example, a *marble box* is made of marble, but a *marble-box* is a box in which marbles are kept. Not every *black bird* is a *blackbird*.

The hyphen usually connects the parts of a compound

word which is new or is little used; as, *ant-hill*, a *rough-and-tumble* frolic.

When the word is in common use, the hyphen is usually omitted; as, *railroad*, *inkstand*, *blackboard*. Still, no invariable rule can be given for the use or omission of the hyphen in compound words. Consult Webster's Dictionary.

Words that denote cardinal numbers and do not express exact tens (twenty, thirty, etc.) are written with the hyphen; as, *forty-four*, *ninety-seven*, *one hundred twenty-three*.

A compound word frequently takes the place of a phrase or a clause. Thus, instead of *a bird with a red head*, we say, *a red-headed bird*. For *a coach that moves slowly*, we may say, *a slow-going coach*.

Exercise 1.

Explain the difference in meaning of the following words when used separately and when compounded.

good man	goodman	black bird	blackbird
long boat	longboat	free mason	freemason
green house	greenhouse	poor house	poorhouse
green room	greenroom	poor laws	poor-laws
church yard	churchyard	round house	roundhouse
Jew's harp	jew's-harp	black smith	blacksmith
light house	lighthouse	blue book	blue-book
mean time	meantime	red wood	redwood
glass house	glasshouse	town house	townhouse

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Make a list of five compound words, not in this lesson, that you think should be written with the hyphen.

(*b*) Make a list of five compound words, not in this lesson, that you think should be written without the hyphen, and give the reason for your opinion.

Exercise 3.

(*a*) Express the following numbers in words.

87, 130, 257, 1533, 2854, 68,021.

(*b*) Change the form of the following expressions by using a compound word in each.

1. A stove heated to redness.
2. A pole twenty feet long.
3. A house that looks well.
4. Roofs shaped like domes.
5. An influence reaching far.
6. A fare that cost five cents.
7. A manner befitting business.
8. Music that stirs the soul.
9. Signals that are repeated often.
10. Veterans scarred in battle.
11. A guest expected for a long time.
12. An instrument having a sharp edge.
13. A toil that never comes to an end.
14. A want that has been felt a long time.
15. A portrait the size of the living face.
16. A difference as wide as the world.
17. Windows that are crowned with ivy.
18. Bees that are loaded with honey.

LXI. ANALYSIS.

Exercise.

Before analyzing a sentence, it should be written in its natural order.

Write the analysis of the following extract from *Evangeline*. Point out —

(*a*) The compound sentences, and resolve each into two or more simple sentences.

(*b*) The subject and predicate of each simple sentence.

(*c*) The phrases; tell the kind, and what they modify.

(*d*) The adjectives and adverbs; tell their use, and what they modify.

Gayly the old man sang to the vibrant sound of his fiddle,
And anon with his wooden shoes beat time to the music.
Merrily, merrily whirled the wheels of the dizzying dances
Under the orchard trees and down the path to the meadows:
Old folk and young together, and children mingled among them.
Fairest of all the maids was Evangeline, Benedict's daughter!
Noblest of all the youths was Gabriel, son of the blacksmith!
So passed the morning away. And lo! with a summons sonorous
Sounded the bell from its tower, and over the meadows a drum beat.
Thronged ere long was the church with men. Without, in the churchyard,
Waited the women. They stood by the graves and hung on the headstones
Garlands of autumn-leaves and evergreens fresh from the forest.
Then came the guard from the ships, and . . .
Entered the sacred portal.

LXII. ANALYSIS (*continued*).

The following form of analysis, either oral or written, will be found convenient in this grade: —

Form of Analysis.

(1) Arrange the sentence in its natural order, and, if written, separate the subject from the predicate by a vertical line.

(2) Kind of sentence, and why so classed.

(3) Clauses, kind, and what they modify.

(4) Phrases, kind, and what they modify.

(5) Modifying words, kind, and what they modify.

Note to the Teacher. — It is well to have some *form* of analysis that may be used by all the pupils in a class. This facilitates the criticism of written analysis, by making the work of the class uniform. At the same time it should be remembered that all *forms* of analysis are more or less mechanical, and are almost sure to waste time if adhered to constantly. Time and space may sometimes be saved by giving only the first and the last words of subjects, predicates, phrases, and clauses.

ANALYSIS.

1. *Many flocks that have survived the ordeal of a drought, | have been silently swallowed by a flood.*

(1) The present order is the natural order.

(2) This is a complex, declarative sentence, — complex because it contains a clause, and declarative because it asserts a fact.

(3) The clause, *that have . . . drought*, is adjective, and modifies *flocks*.

(4) The phrase, *of a drought*, is adjective, and modifies *ordeal;* the phrase, *by a flood*, is adverbial, and modifies *have been swallowed*.

(5) *Many* is an adjective, modifying the noun *flocks;* *that* is a conjunctive pronoun connecting *flocks* with the clause which modifies it; *ordeal* is the object of the verb *have survived;* *silently* is an adverb modifying the verb *have been swallowed*.

2. *For the structure that we raise,*
Time is with materials filled.

(1) *Time | is filled with materials for the structure that we raise.*

(2) This is a complex, declarative sentence, — complex because it contains a clause, and declarative because it asserts a fact.

(3) *That we raise* is an adjective clause, modifying *structure*.

(4) The phrase, *with materials*, is adverbial, and modifies *is filled;* the phrase, *for the structure*, is adjective, and modifies *materials*.

(5) *The* is an adjective, or definite article, modifying or limiting *structure*.

Exercise.

In like manner, analyze the following sentences.

1. My daughter's teacher has a library of choice books.
2. We look at the play of children with delight.
3. Storms move in the direction of the warmest and dampest air.
4. Upon the ruins of every old castle our young traveler looked with veneration.
5. Irving, the author, was a mischievous boy.
6. America, our proud and happy home, we love thee.
7. Letters for our London friends may be sent by the steamer.
8. Whose was the sinewy arm that flung
   Defiance to the ring?
9. The old man keeps in remembrance the happy days of his childhood.

LXIII. ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

On page 18 you learned that to **analyze** a sentence is to separate it into the parts of which it is composed.

You have now learned the eight parts of speech, and the relations which seven of these bear to each other in a sentence. Classifying the words of a sentence as parts of speech, and naming their relations to other words, is called **parsing.**

In analyzing, the important things to be known are: (1) the subject and predicate of the sentence; and (2) the modifying clauses, phrases, and words, together with their office. In parsing, give the part of speech and the construction of each word, and state its use in the sentence.

Analysis and parsing may be combined, as in the following illustration: —

We shall need the aid of friends.

Analysis: This is a simple, declarative sentence, because it contains but one statement. *We* is the subject: *shall need*, the simple predicate; *the aid of friends*, the

complete objective complement of the verb *need*. The object *aid* is modified by the adjective *the*, and by the adjective phrase *of friends*, which tells the kind or source of aid.

PARSING: *We* is a pronoun, because it is used in place of a noun: *shall need* is a verb-phrase, making an assertion concerning the persons denoted by the subject *we*; *the* is an adjective (sometimes called a definite article), limiting the noun *aid*: *aid* and *friends* are nouns, because they are used as names: *of* is a preposition, explaining the relation between *aid* and *friends*.

LXIV. SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

NOTE TO THE TEACHER. — The selections for analysis and parsing have been made with much care, and are here so arranged as to avoid, in the early stages of the work, all difficult constructions. The demand upon the pupil, in any part of the course, should be limited to such matters as have been studied. As the study progresses, the analysis and parsing may be more complete, but unnecessary repetitions of familiar facts should be avoided.

1. The unwearied sun from day to day
Does his Creator's power display,
And publishes to every land
The work of an Almighty hand.

2. Woodman, spare that tree!
Touch not a single bough!
In youth it sheltered me,
And I'll protect it now.

3. That old familiar tree,
Whose glory and renown
Are spread o'er land and sea,
And wouldst thou hew it down?
Woodman, forbear thy stroke!
Cut not its earth-bound ties;
O spare that aged oak,
Now towering to the skies!

4. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
5. Desire of wealth is characteristic of the civilized man
6. Virtue is bold, and goodness never fearful.
7. Small cheer and great welcome make a merry feast.

8. A change came o'er the spirit of my dream.
   The boy was sprung to manhood; in the wilds
   Of fiery climes he made himself a home,
   And his soul drank their sunbeams.

9. Wisdom and goodness, to the vile seem vile.
10. How poor are they that have no patience!
11. Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God.
12. Sweet mercy is nobility's true badge.
13. The stone that is rolling, can gather no moss.
14. After life's fitful fever he sleeps well.

15. Stand not upon the order of your going,
    But go at once.

16. The evil that men do, lives after them;
    The good is oft interréd with their bones.

17. He jests at scars that never felt a wound.

18. Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day
    Stands tiptoe on the misty mountain tops.

19. That is no slander, sir, which is a truth.

20. Through tattered clothes small vices do appear;
    Robes and furr'd gowns hide all.

21. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
22. Ill blows the wind that profits nobody.
23. The better part of valor is discretion.
24. Suspicion always haunts the guilty mind.
25. A friend should bear his friend's infirmities.
26. Fearless minds climb soonest into crowns.
27. Fortune brings in some boats that are not steered.
28. Misery acquaints a man with strange bedfellows.
29. Man proposes, but God disposes.
30. The spirit shall return to Him who gave it.
31. Each lot has its own blessings.
32. Rome bound with oak her patriots' brows.

33. Those who merit most contempt and hate
Do most deserve our pity.

34. Home-keeping youths have ever homely wits.

35. Pity the laden one; this wandering woe
May visit you and me.

36. The brightest of all things, the sun, has its spots.

37. Intelligence and courtesy not always are combined;
Often in a wooden house a golden room you find.

38. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand Pré
Lay in the fruitful valley.

39. Many an inherited sorrow that has marred a life has been breathed into no human ear.

40. Now would I give a thousand furlongs of sea for an acre of barren ground.

41. Cover the embers,
And put out the light;
Toil comes with the morning,
And rest with the night.

42. Mountains which once reared their heads above the clouds have been gnawed down by the tooth of time.

43. Whole continents that were built on foundations of granite and clothed with somber forests have been eaten up by the sea.

44. The oldest known rocks are built of the ruins of some wasted land on which human eyes never rested.

45. The Father of Waters seizes the hills in his hands, and drags them down to the ocean.

46. The sky is a drinking-cup
That was overturned of old,
And it pours in the eyes of men
Its wine of airy gold.

47. We drink that wine all day,
Till the last drop is drained up;
And are lighted off to bed
By the jewels in the cup!

We have learned, in Part I., that sentences may be divided into two parts, called subject and predicate.

We have also learned that all the words of the language may be separated, according to their use in sentences, into eight classes, called parts of speech.

We have found that groups of words, called phrases and clauses, are used as parts of speech.

Of the eight parts of speech, the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctions, may be divided into classes. We have already separated nouns into common and proper, and verbs into transitive and intransitive. Pronouns have been divided into personal and conjunctive.

Many words in the language are inflected; that is, changed in form, or spelling, to indicate a change in the idea expressed.

In Part II. the subjects of **classification** and **inflection** will be studied carefully. It will be necessary, however, first to take a general review of what we have already studied.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Part II.

LXV. GENERAL REVIEW.

How many letters are there in the alphabet? For what purpose are they used? May all the letters represent sounds? Do they always represent sounds? Are there any letters that represent more than one sound? Give examples.

What is a word? What is a monosyllable? a dissyllable? a trisyllable? a polysyllable? Give examples.

What is a sentence? What does a sentence express? Name and illustrate the different kinds of sentences. Name the two principal parts of a sentence.

What is a clause? a phrase? How does a clause differ from a phrase? Give an example of each in a sentence.

Define each part of speech, and give an example of each in a sentence.

Exercise.

1. Alas for him who never sees
2. The stars shine through his cypress-trees!
3. Who, hopeless, lays his dead away,
4. Nor looks to see the breaking day
5. Across the mournful marbles play!
6. Who hath not learned, in hours of faith,
7. The truth, to flesh and sense unknown,
8. That Life is ever lord of Death,
9. And Love can never lose its own!

(*a*) What words may be substituted in place of *alas for*, in the first line of the foregoing exercise?

(*b*) Point out the adjective clause in lines 1 and 2. What is its simple predicate? its entire predicate?

(*c*) What is the antecedent of the conjunctive pronoun in line 3? in line 6?

(*d*) What part of speech is *hopeless? dead? away?*

(*e*) What does the conjunction *nor* connect?

(*f*) What phrases are there in lines 5, 6, and 7? What kind of phrases are they, and why?

(*g*) What is the object of the transitive verb *hath learned?*

(*h*) What part of speech is *unknown*, and what does it modify?

(*i*) What *truth* is referred to in line 7?

LXVI. GENERAL REVIEW (*continued*).

Exercise I.

Analyze the following sentences. (See page 85.)

1. On a slender bough is hung the nest of an oriole.
2. These earnest efforts will win success.
3. See those luscious peaches and the mammoth clusters of grapes, the reward of care and toil.
4. Has the grocer forgotten us, or does his errand-boy loiter on the way?
5. Some lions are exceedingly fierce, and their roar is terrible.
6. Herbert is a rather brilliant scholar, but he is a very disagreeable companion.
7. Alas! how soon their race was run!
8. Under a towering oak that stood in the midst of the village, knelt the chief and his children.
9. The wind waved the branches, and the sun came out and turned those myriads of beads and drops to flashing prisms.
10. I cannot love the man who does not love the song of happy birds.
11. The glory of the butterfly is the starred brilliance of its wings.

Exercise 2.

Analyze the following sentences.

1. Go to the ant, thou sluggard.
2. Every influence that breathes from Irving's writings is good and generous.
3. The love of money is the root of all evil.
4. The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation.
5. So long a train I had never before seen.
6. A man who is diligent in business prospers.
7. My mother, hovered thy spirit o'er thy sorrowing son?
8. In the songs of Burns, glow wild mirth and wild despair.
9. The world should be thankful when the delicate fibers of the poet and man of genius are freely worked in its service.
10. On the cross-beam under the Old South bell,
    The nest of the pigeon is builded well.

LXVII. INFLECTION.

Many words are changed in form to represent slight changes in the ideas expressed: as, *boy* (meaning one boy), and *boys* (meaning more than one boy); *man* (meaning one man), and *man's* (meaning that one man owns something).

The word *sweet* has three forms in English — *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest*. The word *write* has five forms — *write*, *writes*, *wrote*, *writing*, *written*.

Such derived forms are called **inflections**.[1]

Inflections are also called **derivatives**, but it should be remembered that there are two kinds of derivatives: —

(1) English words made directly from other English words; as, *sweeter* and *sweetest* from *sweet*; *writing* and *written* from *write*.

[1] The word *inflection* comes from two Latin words — the prefix *in*, and *flectere*, meaning *to bend*. An inflection in grammar is a word which has been bent out of its original shape. The words *writes*, *wrote*, *writing*, etc., are inflections of *write*; *sweeter* and *sweetest* are inflections of *sweet*.

(2) English words made from foreign words by means of prefixes and suffixes; as, *inflection*, from the Latin root *flec* (in *flectere*), compounded with the prefix *in* and the suffix *tion*.

A word, whether English or foreign, from which another word is derived, may be called a **root word**. Thus the Latin word *flectere*, to bend, may be called the root word of *inflection;* and the English word *man*, the root word of *unmanly*.

Inflection, in grammar, is a change in the form of a word to show a change in its meaning or use.

The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called declension.

Classifying the words of a sentence as parts of speech, and naming their grammatical properties, inflections, and relations to other words, is called parsing.

Exercise.

Write as many forms as you can of each word below, and tell the meaning of each form.

father	sister	man	lion	clerk
mother	uncle	woman	goose	judge
brother	niece	widow	doctor	foreman

LXVIII. NUMBER.

Most nouns have two number forms, singular and plural.

A noun that denotes but one object is in the **singular** number; as, *boy*, *man*, *house*.

A noun that denotes more than one object is in the **plural** number; as, *boys*, *men*, *houses*.

In nearly all nouns number is indicated by a change in the terminations, but in personal pronouns there is an entire change of words.

Examples: —

Nouns.		Personal Pronouns.	
SING.	PLURAL.	SING.	PLURAL.
boy	boys	I	we
box	boxes	thou	ye *or* you
fly	flies	he, she, it	they

Number, in nouns and pronouns, is a distinction between one and more than one.

Exercise I.

(*a*) Copy the following nouns, and after each write its plural form.

box	fly	paper	calf	pen	cow
knife	kiss	vase	fence	book	leaf
stamp	church	boot	tooth	shoe	mouse
pencil	goose	inkstand	street	match	brush

(*b*) Select from the list and place in a column: (1) The nouns made plural by adding *s*. (2) The nouns made plural by adding *es*. (3) The nouns made plural in some other way.

Nearly all nouns ending in silent *e* add only *s* in the plural. A syllable is added whenever the last sound in the singular form will not coalesce with the sound of *s*.

Examples: Rose, fence, vase, prize, ache, village.

(*c*) Which of the nouns in the following list add *es* in the plural, and why?

egg	gas	tax	jest
bath	loss	dish	wedge
muse	zone	iris	brush
rogue	patch	lunch	crutch
topaz	bulb	beach	mayor
onyx	anvil	canoe	nephew
turkey	salad	image	shadow
vulture	anchor	trench	college
process	summons	guinea	frontier
patriarch	monarch	genius	partridge

Singular nouns ending in the sound of *ch* (as in *church*), soft *g* (as in *wedge*), *s*, *x* (= *ks*), *z*, or *sh*, add a syllable in the plural.

(*d*) Note carefully the final sound in each noun of the foregoing list; then state which of the nouns add a syllable in forming the plural, and why.

As most nouns are made plural by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, this is called the *regular* way of forming the plural.

Exercise 2.

Which of the following nouns form their plurals regularly? Show how each of the others forms its plural.

age	child	goddess	mosque	fireman	booth
inch	mouse	talisman	cuckoo	author	tooth
foot	isthmus	outgoing	woman	firman	goose
depth	juryman	Mussulman[1]	German	Ottoman	kerchief

LXIX. NUMBER (*continued*).

Exercise 1.

(*a*) Twelve nouns ending in *f*, and three ending in *fe*, form their plurals in *ves*; as, *beef*, *half*, *self*, *thief*, *knife*. Add as many as you can to the list.

(*b*) Most nouns in *f* and *fe*, however, form their plurals regularly; as, *beliefs*, *briefs*, *fifes*, etc. Find five others.

(*c*) All nouns in *ff* form their plurals regularly; as, *bluffs*, *cliffs*, etc. Find five others.[2]

[1] Words which end in the syllable "man" and are not compounds form their plurals regularly.

[2] "The plural of *staff* has generally been written *staves*, — a puzzling and useless anomaly, both in form and *sound*. *Staffs* is sometimes used, and all the compounds of *staff* are regular." — *Goold Brown*.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Select, from the following list of nouns, such as end in *y* preceded by a vowel, and after each write its plural.

(*b*) Select such as end in *y* preceded by a consonant, and after each write its plural.

fly	sky	reply	joy	sty	cry	city
key	army	daisy	baby	tray	ray	fairy
toy	story	money	buoy	body	lily	berry
boy	penny	jockey	pony	pansy	quay	donkey
way	ditty	monkey	lady	candy	ruby	valley
play	quarry	journey	hobby	story	bounty	enemy
glory	victory	attorney	chimney	fancy	turkey	survey

(*c*) How are the plurals of nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel formed?[1]

(*d*) How are the plurals of nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant formed?

EXCEPTION. — Nouns ending in *y*, if names of persons, usually add *s* in the plural; as, *Henrys*, *Marys*.

LXX. IRREGULAR PLURALS OF NOUNS.

Exercise.

(*a*) Write the plurals of *foot*, *tooth*, *mouse*, and tell whether the words are inflected by adding terminations, or by changing some of the letters. Are the changes made in vowels, in consonants, or in both? Name three other nouns that form their plurals thus irregularly.

(*b*) Name three nouns whose plurals end in *en*. Name one that adds the termination directly to the singular form.

[1] Account for the plural of *soliloquy*.

Most nouns ending in *o* form their plurals by adding *s*. If, however, the final *o* is preceded by a consonant, the plural is usually formed by adding *es*; as, *negro, negroes; calico, calicoes.*

EXCEPTIONS. — The words *albino, alto, banjo, burro, canto, casino, chromo, contralto, duodecimo, dynamo, halo, junto, lasso, llano, memento, octavo, piano, proviso, quarto, salvo, sirocco, solo, soprano, stiletto, two, tyro,* and *virtuoso* add *s* only.

News, politics, ethics, etc., are singular: as, *The news is cheering. Riches* is now commonly used as a plural.

The words *bellows, scissors, spectacles, pincers, shears, tongs, ashes,* and some others, are always plural.

Examples: Her spectacles *are* lost. The ashes *are* hot.

The plurals of some nouns are spelled in precisely the same way as the singulars; as, *deer, sheep, swine, grouse, herd* (cattle), *sail* (ship). Also nouns in *ese* denoting a race; as, *Chinese, Japanese.*

Some nouns have two plurals, with different meanings.

Examples:—

Brothers (of the same family).	Brethren (of the same society).
Cloths (kinds of cloth).	Clothes (garments).
Dies (stamps).	Dice (small cubes).
Fishes (individuals).	Fish (quantity).
Geniuses (men of genius).	Genii (spirits).
Heads (of bodies).	Head (cattle).
Indexes (tables of contents).	Indices (algebraic signs).
Pennies (pieces of money).	Pence (value in pennies).
Sails (pieces of canvas).	Sail (vessels).
Shots (number of times fired).	Shot (number of balls).

Letters, figures, and other characters are made plural by annexing *'s*; as, *two 5's, four a's, three *'s.*

When a name is preceded by a title, as *Mr.*, *Dr.*, or *Miss*, the whole term may be made plural by making the title plural; as, *Mr. Brown*, *Messrs. Brown*; *Dr. Leonard*, *Drs. Leonard*; *Miss Palmer*, *the Misses Palmer*. Or the name itself may be plural; as, *the two Miss Browns*; *the three Miss Palmers*.

There is no invariable rule for forming the plurals of compound words when used as nouns. The most important word in the compound is usually pluralized; as, *fathers-in-law*. When the compound noun is regarded as a whole, the last word is pluralized; as, *forget-me-nots*.

When the compound noun consists of two words in the nature of appositives, both are made plural; as, *Knights Templars*.

LXXI. NUMBER OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The pronoun *I* indicates the speaker, and is therefore in the singular number.

We, *our*, and *us*, indicate that the speaker includes another or others with himself. *We*, *our*, and *us* are therefore plural.

The pronoun *you* is used in addressing another or others, and in meaning may be either singular or plural. When used as a subject, however, it always takes a plural verb.

Examples: You *are* a good boy. You *are* good children.

The pronouns *thou*, *thy*, *thine*, and *thee* are in the singular number. They are used in addresses to the Deity and by poets. The Quakers, or Friends, use these pronouns instead of the pronouns *you*, *your*, and *yours*.

Exercise 1.

(*a*) Make an alphabetical list of the personal pronouns in the table on page 35.

(*b*) With your book closed, write the word "singular" after the pronouns that are singular in meaning, write the word "plural" after the pronouns that are plural in meaning, and write "singular or plural" after pronouns that are sometimes singular and sometimes plural.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) In the following extracts, point out the personal pronouns, tell whether they are singular or plural, and why.

(*b*) Point out the antecedents of the pronouns, when expressed.

1. Under the church of Federal Street,
Under the tread of its Sabbath feet,
Walled about by its basement stones,
Lie the marvelous preacher's bones.
No saintly honors to them are shown,
No sign nor miracle have they known;
But he who passes the ancient church
Stops in the shade of its belfry porch,
And ponders the wonderful life of him
Who lies at rest in that charnel dim.
Long shall the traveler strain his eye
From the railroad car, as it passes by,
And the vanishing town behind him search
For the slender spire of the Whitefield Church.

2. And thou, my song, I send thee forth,
Where harsher songs of mine have flown;
Go, find a place at home and hearth
Where'er thy singer's name is known;
Revive for him the kindly thought
Of friends; and they who love him not,
Touched by some strain of thine, perchance may take
The hand he proffers all, and thank him for thy sake.

LXXII. GENDER.

From the following nouns, select (1) the names of males; (2) the names of females: (3) names that may be applied to either males or females; (4) names that must be applied to objects that are neither males nor females.

girl	poet	son	lad	ship
book	field	hen	baron	sheep
child	geese	duck	tailor	swine
father	maid	witch	lioness	editor
mother	horse	doctor	prophet	heroine
bachelor	pasture	poetess	Caroline	princess

It is usual to divide nouns and pronouns into four kinds, or genders (gender signifies *kind*) — **masculine, feminine, neuter,** and **common.**

In the first class (masculine) are included all names of males; as, *man, boy.* In the second (feminine), are all names of females; as, *woman, girl.* In the third (neuter), are all names of objects that are neither male nor female; as, *rock, house.* In the fourth (common), are all names that will apply without change in form to either males or females; as, *animal, sheep.*

This division of names into four genders is very convenient, because we have, in the pronouns, four distinct forms corresponding to the four classes mentioned. For example, *he* is masculine; *she*, feminine; *it*, neuter; *they*, common.

Whenever a pronoun takes the place of a noun, its gender and number forms must correspond with the meaning of the noun.

All animals have sex — some are male, and others female. Some nouns have certain forms which show whether they are the names of males or of females. Thus the noun *lion*

is of the masculine gender, while *lioness* is of the feminine gender; *hero* is masculine, and *heroine* is feminine.

Gender[1] **is a distinction of nouns and pronouns with regard to sex.**

LXXIII. GENDER (*continued*).

Exercise.

(*a*) Copy the following masculine nouns, and after each write its corresponding feminine.

boy	earl	lad	male	sir
beau	duke	lord	monk	son
buck	drake	hero	papa	tiger
brother	father	king	negro	uncle
bachelor	doctor	husband	master	youth
bridegroom	emperor	gentleman	nephew	widower

(*b*) Which nouns in the list above have gender terminations to denote the feminine?

(*c*) The feminines of the following nouns are somewhat irregular. See how many of them you can find.

Joseph	Paul	Henry	Jesse	Cecil
Louis	John	Goodman	Augustus	Francis

(*d*) Some nouns have certain words prefixed to designate the sex of the individual; as, *man-servant*, *she-bear*. Make a list of five such nouns.

[1] This property of nouns is quite unimportant in grammar, because so few nouns in the language are changed in form for the purpose of distinguishing the sex of the individual. In our language, we use, for the most part, entirely different words to represent the male and the corresponding female; as, *boy*, *girl*; *horse*, *mare*. The French termination, *ess*, which has displaced the older feminine terminations in a few nouns, is now gradually disappearing. Thus little use is now made of such words as *doctress*, *janitress*, etc., the masculine form being applied to either sex. Such words as *songstress* have double feminine terminations, the old English termination *ster* (estre), and the more modern French *ess*.

LXXIV. GENDER OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Pronouns have the same gender as the nouns which they represent. Thus, *he*, *his*, *him*, represent masculine nouns; *she*, *hers*, *her*, represent feminine nouns; *it* and *its*, neuter nouns; and *they*, *theirs*, etc., nouns of any gender.

It and *its* may refer to a child or to a lower animal, when sex is not considered.

Examples: The baby walks, though *it* is only eleven months old.
The dog's bark is worse than *its* bite.

Exercise 1.

(*a*) From the list of pronouns on page 35, point out those that always stand for names of males.

(*b*) Point out those that always stand for names of females.

(*c*) Point out those that stand for names of objects that are neither males nor females.

(*d*) Point out those that may stand for names of either males or females.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) In the following sentences, point out the personal pronouns, tell what nouns (antecedents) they represent, and the gender of the nouns.

1. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

2. No man should be ashamed to own that he has been in the wrong.
3. The dogs eat of the crumbs which fall from their masters' table.
4. A man may beat the bush, and his friend may catch the bird.
5. Great talkers are like broken pitchers: they hold nothing.
6. Laziness travels so slowly that poverty soon overtakes it.
7. Whom men wrong, they hate.
8. Men heap up riches and know not who will enjoy them.

PERSONIFICATION.

Objects without life are frequently spoken of as human beings. Thus, Longfellow, speaking of a ship, says: —

She starts! she moves! she seems to feel
The thrill of life along her keel!

In these lines, the ship is spoken of as a person, and is said to be **personified**. In such cases, the pronoun must have the gender that is ascribed to its antecedent.

Objects remarkable for size or power are usually personified in the masculine gender; those remarkable for beauty or grace, in the feminine.

Its, the possessive of *it*, was not used until the time of Queen Elizabeth. Previously, *his* was the possessive of both *he* and *it*. In the Bible, there are many examples of this old use of *his*.

Example: Put up again thy sword into *his* place.

LXXV. PERSON.

From the personal pronouns on page 35, make a list —

(1) Of those that denote or include the name of the speaker, as, *I*, *we*. Pronouns in this list are in the **first person.**

(2) Of those that may be used in place of names of persons spoken to, as, *thou*, *you*. Pronouns in this list are in the **second person.**

(3) Of those that may stand for the names of persons or things spoken of; as, *he*, *it*. Pronouns in this list are in the **third person.**

Person is a distinction of nouns and pronouns which shows whether they represent speakers, persons spoken to, or persons or things spoken of.

Nouns are usually in the third person, because they are almost always names of persons or things spoken of. Occasionally, expressions containing nouns in the first or second person are used: —

I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States.

Here *Abraham Lincoln* and *President* are in the first person.

You, William Henry, should endeavor to learn your lessons.

William Henry in this sentence is in the second person.

By comparing your three lists of pronouns, you will see that no inflection of the words in one list will make the words in another. Thus we find that pronouns are not inflected to denote person.

Thou (plural *ye*, once in general use) has been displaced, except in the solemn style, by *you.*

All pronouns in the first or second person, whether singular or plural, are used to designate males, females, or things personified. Plural pronouns of the third person may be used in place of nouns of any gender.

We have found that, to denote number, most nouns are inflected; as, *man, men; boy, boys;* — that some of them are inflected to denote gender; as, *Jew, Jewess; lion, lioness.* Moreover, all nouns are inflected to denote possession; as, *man, man's; men, men's.* (See next lesson.)

A noun may be used in the first, second, and third persons, without any change whatever in its form.

Examples: I, Thomas (first person), am the culprit.
Thomas (second person), you are the culprit.
Thomas (third person) is the culprit.

Neither nouns nor pronouns, therefore, are inflected to denote person.

LXXVI. CASE.

The word case is commonly employed to indicate three relations that a noun or pronoun may hold to other words in a sentence.

These three relations are those of **subject**, **object**, and **possessor.**

Nouns have but two case forms, the only change from the simplest form being to express ownership; as, *man*, *man's; boys*, *boys'*. The relations of subject and object are sometimes shown by the position of the noun in the sentence; the subject usually stands before its verb, and the object follows a transitive verb or preposition.

Singular nouns are made to express ownership by the addition of an apostrophe and *s* (*'s*); as, *the boy's book*, *James's flute*. (But see page 110.)

Plural nouns that end in *s* express ownership by the addition of the apostrophe only; as, *the ladies' hats*. If the plural noun does not end in *s*, ownership is expressed in the same way as in singular nouns — that is, by adding *'s;* as, *men's hats*, *the children's games*.

Number, gender, person, and case are often called **properties** of nouns and pronouns.

Exercise I.

Write the following nouns in the singular number, possessive case.

men	boy	cat	uncle	dog
child	cow	rabbit	aunts	birds
Mary	hens	ladies	foxes	sister
sheep	oxen	heroes	father	cousin
mouse	girls	sailors	mother	women
James	horses	brother	painter	teacher
William	rogues	enemies	nephew	scholar
negroes	fishes	soprano	fairies	monkey

Exercise 2.

Write the following nouns in the plural number, possessive case, and use them in sentences.

boy	ox	aunt	bird	dog
man	cat	uncles	foxes	hens
cows	sister	cousin	rogue	hero
lady	father	chicken	mouse	woman
girl	enemy	brother	sailor	mother
horse	children	nephew	rabbit	painter

LXXVII. CASE (*continued*).

A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a verb is said to be in the **nominative case.**

Life is what we make it.

In this sentence, *life* is the subject of *is*, and *we* is the subject of *make.*

The noun or pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb or preposition, is said to be in the **objective case.**

Washington commanded the army.

In this sentence, *army* is called the object of the transitive verb *commanded*, because it names the real object that received the commands.

My father spoke to the teacher.

Here *teacher* is called the object of the preposition *to*, because it names the object to which the action (speaking) was directed.

We had heard whom he wanted, and to whom he sent the message.

In this sentence, the first *whom* is the object of the verb *wanted*, and the second *whom* is the object of the preposition *to.*

The form (spelling) of a noun is the same whether used in the nominative or in the objective case, but the forms of the pronouns in the two cases are almost always different. In speaking of a man, we may use the pronouns *he* and *him*, but *he* is always used as a subject (or a complement of an intransitive verb), and *him* as an object.

Example: *He* wrote to *him* and thanked *him* for his kindness.

The pronoun *who* is used as a subject, and *whom* as an object.

Example: I neither heard *who* went nor to *whom* the message was sent.

A third relation is that of possession, and is known as the **possessive case**. In nouns, this is denoted by an apostrophe and *s* (*'s*), or by an apostrophe alone; but pronouns, except *one*, *other*, and *another*, never take an apostrophe to show possession, since their form sufficiently indicates the relation.

Examples: Some *one's* umbrella is in the anteroom.
The tree has shed *its* leaves.

The subject and the noun complement (or pronoun complement) of an intransitive verb hold nearly the same relation to the verb, and these terms may frequently be inverted, with little or no change of meaning.

Examples: Mr. Brown was the chairman of the meeting.
The chairman of the meeting was Mr. Brown.

Therefore, when a pronoun complement is used after an intransitive verb, care must be taken that it is in the same case as the subject.

Mistakes can occur only in the use of pronouns. Why?

Examples: It is *I* (not *me*). It will be *he* (not *him*).

In what two cases may *it* be used? *you? her?*

Can you name any other pronoun that has the same form in different cases?

Exercise 1.

From the following personal pronouns, select and use in sentences (*a*) those that may be used as subjects; (*b*) those that may be used as complements; (*c*) those that may be used as objects.

I	us	he	her	it	they
me	you	she	thou	him	them

Exercise 2.

It was Martha and —— who blamed ——.
It was Martha and I who blamed her.

In the sentence above, *I* is correct, because it is the complement of the verb *was*. *Her*, the objective form of the pronoun *she*, is here the object of the transitive verb *blamed*.

In the same way fill the blanks below with suitable pronouns, and explain their fitness.

1. It was ——, not ——.
2. —— and —— met —— in Paris.
3. Was it Jane and —— who met ——?
4. It was —— who named you and ——.
5. To Ralph and —— belongs the credit.
6. Was it I or —— that lost it?
7. I know it was made for Mary and ——.
8. Both —— and —— were wrong.
9. I see that for —— and —— there is no excuse.
10. I ask no favor of —— or ——.
11. Did —— and —— meet them there?
12. They spoke rudely to —— and ——.
13. It was not ——. Was it ——?
14. Against —— and —— they bring no complaint.
15. Will it be —— or —— that will win?
16. It may be either —— or ——.

LXXVIII. THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

We have already learned (page 106) that the possessive case of most singular nouns is expressed by the addition of an apostrophe and *s* ('*s*).

A few singular nouns, like most nouns in the plural, add only the apostrophe to denote the possessive case.

Example: *Moses'* sister was named Miriam.

Pronounce distinctly *Moses' sister, Moses's sister; Xerxes' army, Xerxes's army; Frances's share, Frances' share; conscience's sake, conscience' sake.*

The use of an *s* after the apostrophe often adds a syllable and thus causes, in words similar to those given above, a disagreeable succession of hissing sounds. It should be observed, however, that, in forming the possessive singular of all such nouns, many good writers have shown a preference for using the *s*.

Compound terms take the possessive sign at the end.

Example: My brother-in-law's name is James.

The last of two or more nouns implying common possession takes the sign of the possessive.

Example: Metcalf and Bright's Language Lessons.

If no common possession is implied, or if the nouns are joined by *or* or *nor*, each noun must take the sign of the possessive.

Example: He accepted neither Grant's nor Sherman's proffer of aid.

The meaning of the possessive case may frequently be expressed more elegantly by a phrase.

Example: Washington's death — the death of Washington.

The names of persons, lower animals, and personified objects are almost the only nouns that are inflected to denote possession. With other nouns it is more common to express possession by means of phrases.

Examples: The top *of the tree;* not, *the tree's top.*
The length *of the street;* not, *the street's length.*

Exercise.

Use phrases instead of the following nouns in Italics.

1. *Dr. Holmes's* writings.
2. *Page and Hawley's* efforts.
3. *Benjamin Franklin's* services.
4. *New England's* sacrifices.
5. *The State's* indebtedness.
6. *Arnold's* treason.
7. *Washington's* inauguration.
8. *The Sixth Regiment's* experience.
9. *The Lord's* mercy endureth forever.
10. It is not beauty I demand,
A crystal brow, the *moon's* despair,
Nor the *snow's* daughter, a white hand,
Nor *mermaid's* yellow pride of hair.

Although the preposition *of* is frequently used in place of the apostrophe and *s*, to express possession, still it sometimes happens that, to avoid ambiguity, both are used in the same sentence; as, *This sketch of my son's pleased me* (preferably, *my son's sketch*). The sentence, *This sketch of my son*, may have two meanings. What are they?

The termination *es* marked the possessive (or genitive) case in the Anglo-Saxon language; and the apostrophe indicates the omission of the *e* from that termination. The apostrophe as the sign of the possessive case was not in common use until late in the seventeenth century.

LXXIX. CASES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Pronouns have no inflection except for case: but, unlike nouns, they have three case-forms; thus,—

Nominative	Possessive	Objective
he	*his*	*him*

Inflection of Personal Pronouns for Case.

SINGULAR.

PERSON.	*Nom.*	*Poss.*	*Obj.*
First	I	my *or* mine	me
Second	thou	thy, thine	thee
Third	he	his	him
	she	her *or* hers	her
	it	its	it

PLURAL.

PERSON.	*Nom.*	*Poss.*	*Obj.*
First	we	our *or* ours	us
Second	ye *or* you	your *or* yours	you
Third	they	their *or* theirs	them

All there is of inflection in personal pronouns is shown in the foregoing table. Some of these pronouns are not inflected at all; thus, *I* appears in no other form. But *you*, *your*, *yours*, are evidently different forms, or inflections, of the same word.

When two forms appear in the possessive, one is always used as an adjective before a noun; as, *This is my book.* The other includes in its meaning both the adjective and the noun; as, *This book is mine* (*my book*).

In the Bible, and in poetry, *mine* and *thine* are often used before words beginning with a vowel or with *h*; as, *mine* eye, *thine* hand.

Exercise.

(*a*) Write from memory, and arrange as in the table on page 112, all the personal pronouns of the first person; of the second; of the third.

(*b*) In which person and number of the personal pronouns are there two nominative forms, and what are they?

(*c*) In what two instances have we only one possessive form?

(*d*) When there are two forms in the possessive, how is each used?

(*e*) What caution is necessary in writing the pronouns *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *its*, and *theirs?*

LXXX. CASES OF APPOSITIVES.

(Review Lesson XXIX., page 43.)

An **appositive** must be in the same case as the noun or pronoun which it represents.

Examples: The faithful *farmer, he* (not him) who, with an intelligent purpose, tills the soil, will surely win respect.
His, my *father's*, honor was assailed.
Honor thy *father, him* of all men to whom you are most indebted.

EXCEPTION. — When one of two appositive nouns is in the possessive case, the other is usually written without the sign.

Examples: Sister Sarah's house was burned last night.
Sinbad the Sailor's wonderful story is familiar to every child.

In such cases the two nouns may be considered as one name, rather than as appositives.

Exercise.

(*a*) Select the appositives in the following sentences, tell the case of each, and why it is in that case.

(*b*) Analyze the first two sentences.

1. Professor Morse, the inventor of the electric telegraph, was born in Charlestown, Mass.
2. This counsel was Washington's, — his who is justly styled the Father of his Country.
3. Abraham Lincoln, he who in derision was called the rail-splitter, is second only to Washington, in the hearts of his countrymen.
4. Excellent bread was bought at Winn the baker's.
5. He gave one hundred dollars to his daughter, Elizabeth Child.
6. He gave one hundred dollars to his daughter, Elizabeth's child.
7. He gave one hundred dollars to his daughter Elizabeth's child.

LXXXI. REVIEW.

(First Oral and then Written.)

(1) What is a proper noun? a common noun? a collective noun? Give an example of each.

(2) What is meant by inflection? Show all the inflections of the nouns *valley*, *sky*, *piano*, *woman*, and use each inflected form in a sentence.

(3) Name five different inflections of nouns to denote the plural, and illustrate each. (See pages 94–99.)

(4) Illustrate three ways of denoting the feminine of nouns. Which are inflections?

(5) Inflect the following nouns to denote possession: *father*, *fox*, *horse*, *Silas*, *James*, *men*, *boys*, *people*, *ladies*.

(6) Give rules for forming the plurals of nouns in *y*.

(7) What two personal pronouns have the same form in the objective case as in the nominative?

(8) Give the rule for the case of an appositive. Illustrate.

LXXXII. CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

(Review Lesson XXIII., page 38.)

(1) In the following examples, which words in Italics are used as adjectives to express some quality? (2) Which are used as adjectives but do not express quality? (3) Which express number? (4) Which are derived from a proper noun? Name the noun.

Examples: A *sweet* orange; *yonder* valley; *three* pupils; *those* houses; *Indian* warfare; a *gentle* horse; *that* pencil; the *first* class; *American* schools; *woolen*[1] mittens.

Adjectives that denote qualities of objects are called **descriptive adjectives**; as, a *green* apple, a *beautiful* picture.

An adjective that denotes number or quantity, or that merely points out an object without describing it, is called a **definitive adjective**[2]; as, *this* man, *yonder* hill, *the* cup.

A definitive adjective expressing number is called a **numeral adjective**; as, *two* houses, a *few* pupils, the *first* class.

The definitives *this* and *that* take the plurals *these* and *those* respectively; as, *this* man, *these* men — *that* man, *those* men. These are the only adjectives in the language that have both singular and plural forms.

An adjective derived from a proper noun is called a **proper adjective**; as, *American*, *Indian*, *European*. Such an adjective must always begin with a capital.

[1] Adjectives ending in the unaccented syllable *en*, once very common, seem to be disappearing from the language. This is to be regretted, because such words add much to what may be termed the *rhythm* of the language. The unaccented syllable allows the voice to glide smoothly from one word to another. Compare the expressions, *a wooden box, a wood box; Lenten services, Lent services; the golden sky, the gold sky.*

[2] When a noun is preceded by both a definitive and a descriptive adjective, the latter usually stands next to the noun; as, *two fine deer, these pretty flowers.*

Exercise.

Point out the adjectives in the following sentences, tell for what purpose they are used, and classify them.

1. We are never so happy or so unhappy as we suppose.
2. A ground-glass shade over a gas-lamp does not bring more solace to our dazzled eyes than a dull but kindly person brings to our minds.
3. Do you think a carpenter is bound to use the same plane but once to smooth a knotty board, or to hang up his hammer after it has driven its first nail?
4. An Italian philosopher had as his most valued motto, "Time is my estate."
5. Lonely and lovely, a single star
   Lights the air with a dusky glimmer.
6. Could angry Pallas, with revengeful spleen,
   The Grecian navy burn, and drown the men?
7. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!
   As the swift seasons roll;
   Leave thy low-vaulted past;
   Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
   Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
   Till thou at length art free,
   Leaving thine outgrown shell by Life's unresting sea!

LXXXIII. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Numeral adjectives are divided into two classes — cardinals and ordinals.

The **cardinals** are the numerals used in counting; as, *one*, *two*, *three*, etc.

The **ordinals** are the numerals used to denote the order in which things stand in a series; as, *first*, *second*, *third*, etc.

The ordinals, except *first* and *second*, are also used (as nouns) to denote fractional parts of anything; as, a *fourth*, an *eighth*, seven *thirty-seconds*, etc.

Nouns in the singular number are not commonly used with numerals above *one*. The following nouns, however, are exceptions: *pair*, *dozen*, *hundred*, *score*, *yoke*, *cannon*, *sail* (*ships*), *foot and horse* (*soldiers*), *perch*, *trout*, and a few others. Such expressions, therefore, as *two dozen*, *three hundred*, *four yoke*, *twenty sail*, are correct.

Compound adjectives like *ten-foot*, *six-inch*, etc., are correctly used before singular as well as plural nouns. Thus, it is correct to say *a five-gallon cask*, *a two-quart pail*.

Numeral adjectives denoting numbers between twenty and one hundred, not exact tens, are written with a hyphen. Thus, *twenty-one*, *forty-eight*, *one hundred sixty-three*.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the adjectives in the following sentences, and name the class to which each belongs.

(*b*) Analyze the fourth, fifth, and tenth sentences.

1. These two keen-eyed boys live in yonder wretched hovel.
2. Each of those ten huge furnaces is filled with iron ore.
3. Twenty-three choice fruit-trees were destroyed by that sudden gust.
4. A younger brother of this ruined man was an early victim to the same pernicious habit.
5. Numerous rich specimens found ready sale at the first and second stands.
6. Here were seven acres of the finest yellow cedar, three fourths of the trees being tall and straight.
7. Every little incident of that joyous day is remembered.
8. Boston Common, one of the most beautiful parks of the city, contains forty-eight acres.
9. The army consisted of three thousand foot and a thousand horse.
10. Perkins, an illustrious American inventor, substituted steel for copper in engraving bank-notes.
11. John Quincy Adams was the sixth president of the United States.
12. But half of our heavy task was done.
13. Every seventh year was held sacred by the Jewish people.

LXXXIV. ADJECTIVES (*continued*).

There are three ways in which an adjective may be joined with a noun or pronoun to describe or modify it.

(1) It may be placed directly before the noun which it modifies.

Examples: The savage beast. The studious pupil. Running water.

(2) It may be used as the complement of an incomplete intransitive verb.

Examples: Aristides was just. Socrates became unpopular. It tastes sweet.

(3) Occasionally it follows the noun.

Example: He was a soldier, brave and true.

Adjective modifiers frequently take the form of phrases or clauses. The following sentences, though different in form, have the same meaning.

Socrates was a wise man.
Socrates was a man of wisdom.
Socrates was a man who was wise.

In the first sentence, the noun *man* is modified by the adjective *wise*: in the second, by the adjective phrase *of wisdom*: in the third, by the adjective clause *who was wise*.

Nouns and pronouns in the possessive case are used as adjectives, and may be called **adjective modifiers**.

In my Father's house are many mansions.

In this sentence, the noun *house* is modified by the noun *Father's* in the possessive case, and the noun *Father's* is modified by the pronoun *my* in the possessive case.

Exercise.

(*a*) In each of the following sentences, point out the entire subject and the entire predicate.

(*b*) Point out the phrases and clauses, tell what kind they are, and what they modify.

(*c*) Name all the nouns, and classify them.

(*d*) Name all the adjectives, classify them, and tell what they modify.

(*e*) Point out the personal pronouns, and tell the person, number, and case of each one.

1. Rip Van Winkle was one of those happy mortals who take the world easy.
2. He was a great favorite among all the good wives of the village.
3. He assisted at the sports of the children, made their playthings, and told [to] them long stories of ghosts, witches, and Indians.
4. He said that his farm was the most pestilent little piece of ground in the whole country.
5. A tart temper never mellows with age, and a sharp tongue is the only edged tool that grows sharper with constant use.

LXXXV. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Many descriptive adjectives are inflected, as in the sentences below, to express different degrees of the same quality. When thus inflected a **comparison** is made between two or more objects having a common quality.

Examples: —

The apple in my hand is *sweet*.
The apples in the basket are *sweeter* than the one in my hand.
The apple on the table is the *sweetest* of all.

The inflection of adjectives to denote degrees of quality or quantity is called comparison.

The three forms of an adjective are called respectively the positive, the comparative, and the superlative degrees of comparison; as, positive *sweet*, comparative *sweeter*, superlative *sweetest*.

The **positive** is the simple or root form of the adjective, and is used in naming the quality of one or more objects.

Example: The road is *rough*.

The **comparative** is made by adding *er* to the root, and is used in making a comparison between *two* objects or sets of objects.

Example: This road is *rougher* than that.

The **superlative** is made by adding *est* to the root, and is used in comparing *three* or *more* objects or sets of objects.

Example: This is the *roughest* road of all.

A comparison is sometimes made between two qualities existing in the same object.

Example: Youth is often *more beautiful* than *wise*.

Certain qualities that cannot exist in different degrees are sometimes compared when not taken in their full sense.

Examples: This road is *straighter* than the other.
The treasury is *fuller* than it was last month.

When an adjective in the comparative degree is used with *than*, the thing compared must be excluded from the things with which it is compared.

Example: Thomas is taller than any *other* boy in the class.

When an adjective in the superlative degree is used, the object compared must always be included with the things with which it is compared.

Examples: Thomas is the tallest boy in the class; or
Thomas is the tallest of *all* the boys.

Exercise.

COMPARISON.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
happy,	*happier,*	*happiest.*

In like manner, compare the adjectives below.

high	small	sure	sour	cold	slow
low	light	true	tall	hot	weak
large	heavy	sweet	short	fast	strong

LXXXVI. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES (*continued*).

The adjectives that are compared by adding *er* and *est* to the root consist, principally, of those having but one syllable. The terminations *er* and *est* commonly add a syllable to the word to which they are attached; consequently, they are likely to increase the difficulty of pronunciation. For this reason, doubtless, the inflection of adjectives for the purpose of comparison has been confined, chiefly, to words of one or two syllables.

Most adjectives of two syllables, and nearly all of more than two, are compared by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least;* as, *the most beautiful*, *the least desirable.*

The following rules for the comparison of adjectives, though not very definite, are as exact as the facts will warrant, and may be found convenient for use.

(1) Adjectives of one syllable — also those of two syllables if they end in *le* or *y*, or if they are accented on the second syllable — are usually compared by adding *er* or *est* to the root form.

Examples: Rich, richer, richest; able, abler, ablest; pretty, prettier, prettiest; polite, politer, politest.

(2) Adjectives of three or more syllables are compared by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*. These are used before the root form.

Examples: Dangerous, more dangerous, most dangerous.
Beautiful, less beautiful, least beautiful.
Delightful, more delightful, most delightful.

(3) Adjectives of two syllables sometimes express comparison by an inflection, as in (1), sometimes by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, as in (2), and occasionally in both ways.

Examples: Complete, completer, completest.
Complete, more complete, most complete.
Divine, diviner, divinest.
Divine, more divine, most divine.

If both forms of the comparative or of the superlative are to be used in the same sentence, the inflected form should precede the other.

Example: Mr. Elwood's appeal was briefer and more impressive: *not*, . . . more impressive and briefer.

Exercise.

(*a*) Write the comparison of the adjectives in the following list.

(*b*) Use in sentences the comparatives of the first three adjectives in the list.

(*c*) Use in sentences the superlatives of the last three adjectives in the list.

able	robust	cunning	polite
cheerful	honest	unkind	tender
sincere	lovely	manly	angry
discreet	mellow	deliberate	pleasant
fearless	particular	frightful	grateful
worldly	probable	complete	marshy
grotesque	precise	extravagant	narrow

LXXXVII. IRREGULAR COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

There are a few adjectives in the language that have no regular form of comparison. They are, chiefly, words in very common use, and should be carefully learned.

TABLE OF ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY.

POSITIVE.	COMPAR.	SUPERL.	POSITIVE.	COMPAR.	SUPERL.
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst	late	later, latter	latest, last
far	farther	farthest	little	less	least
fore	former	foremost, first	many, much	more	most
(forth)	further	furthest	near	nearer	nearest, next
good, well	better	best	old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

The suffix *most* aids in forming other superlatives; as, *furthermost*, *inmost*, *innermost*, *topmost*, *uppermost*, etc.

The forms *further*, *furthest* (derived from the adverb *forth*) are hardly distinguished in use from *farther*, *farthest*. *Farther* is commonly used to indicate *distance*; *further*, to indicate *addition*.

Examples: We have seen that the ant is busy; *further*, she is skillful. Success seemed *farther* off than at first.

Custom allows the use of *lesser* for *less* in a few special instances; as, *lesser* Asia, the *lesser* light.

Since *many* denotes number and *much* denotes quantity, *more*, the comparative of both adjectives, may modify either a singular or a plural noun. Hence, both *more is wanted* and *more are wanted*, may be correct.

Former and *latter* refer chiefly to things mentioned just before. Yet we read of *former days* and *former times*, and of the *former* and the *latter rain*.

LXXXVIII. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs are compared like adjectives. A few add the suffixes *er* and *est;* as, *soon, sooner, soonest.* Most of them, however, are compared by means of *more* and *most, less* and *least;* as, *rapidly, more rapidly, most rapidly; bravely, less bravely, least bravely.*

Many adverbs do not admit of comparison. Such are *here, yonder, now, then, thus, why, besides, very, almost,* etc.

The list below contains the adverbs that are either irregular or defective in comparison.

TABLE OF ADVERBS COMPARED IRREGULARLY.

POSITIVE.	COMPAR.	SUPERL.	POSITIVE.	COMPAR.	SUPERL.
far	farther	farthest	much	more	most
forth	further	furthest	near	nearer	nearest *or* next
ill	worse	worst			
late	later	latest *or* last	(rathe)[1]	rather	
			well	better	best
little	less	least			

Exercise.

(*a*) Compare the following adverbs.

eagerly	early	often	surely
merrily	directly	fully	especially
seldom	sweetly	nearly	smoothly
comfortably	happily	frequently	extravagantly

(*b*) Copy the following adverbs, and then, from memory, arrange properly their three degrees of comparison.

most	far	late	ill	best
forth	less	near	rather	next

[1] *Rathe* or *rath*, meaning *early*, is very rare in modern English, but it is found in older writings; as, *Bring the rathe primrose that forsaken dies. I schalle come home, and that rather* (earlier) *than some men wolde.*

LXXXIX. VERBS, PRESENT AND PAST TENSES.

(Review Lessons XXX.–XXXII., pages 45–47.)

There are three natural divisions of time — **present**, **past**, and **future**. In sentences, these divisions of time are usually indicated by the forms of the verbs or verb-phrases.

Tenses are forms of verbs or verb-phrases which indicate the time to which the action or state is referred.

The tenses are named present, past, or future, according as they express present, past, or future time. These are called the three **primary tenses.**

Exercise.

FORMS OF THE VERB.

I write. You write. He writes. We write. You write. They write. The boy writes.

(*a*) In like manner, use the following words in succession to fill the blanks below.

I, you, he, we, they, the boy.

—— write.	—— speak.	—— sleep.	—— fall.
—— go.	—— swim.	—— know.	—— grow.
—— see.	—— spin.	—— begin.	—— drive.

What different forms of each verb have you used in this exercise?

Which subjects require the verb to end in *s*? In what person and number is each subject?

What other personal pronouns, used as subjects, would require the verb to end in *s*?

Is present or past time expressed by these verbs?

(*b*) Fill the blanks below with the same subjects as in (*a*).

—— wrote.	—— spoke.	—— slept.	—— fell.
—— went.	—— swam.	—— knew.	—— grew.
—— saw.	—— spun.	—— began.	—— drove.

How many forms of each verb have you used?

Is present or past time expressed by these verbs?

(*c*) Change the following sentences so that the verbs will express past time, and note the changes made in the forms (spelling) of the verbs.

I drive.	You forget.	He draws.
The boy drinks.	She swims.	They sit.
We sing.	The dog runs.	They tear.
I take.	It shrinks.	The horse bites.
You study.	He loses.	She weeps.

XC. VERBS, PRESENT AND PAST TENSES (*continued*).

We found in the last lesson that certain verbs have three forms which are used to assert something either in present or past time. These are the only inflections that verbs have to indicate *time*.

Exercise I.

PRESENT.		PAST.
(1) *write*	(2) *writes*	(3) *wrote*

Arrange in the same way the forms in the list below.

run	paint	sleep	study	see
fall	slide	take	know	fly
row	speak	weave	freeze	grow
strike	throw	catch	wear	bite

The first form is called the **root** of the verb, because the inflected forms grow out of it. This form and the form that ends in *s* are used to express **present** or **indefinite** time.

Examples: You stand in my way.
The carriage stands at my door.
The sun rises in the east.

The third form indicates **past** time.

Example: I wrote a letter (last week).

Exercise 2.

PRESENT.	PAST.
I write the letter.	*I wrote the letter.*

(*a*) In the following exercise, rewrite the sentences, using the past tense[1] of each verb.

(*b*) Analyze the second, eleventh, and fifteenth sentences.

1. The wind blows the curtain.
2. I choose a seat by the window.
3. The blast drives the fallen leaves.
4. The sun shines upon the placid lake.
5. The lad shrinks from climbing the spire.
6. We see the rapid growth of cities.
7. The bitter blast freezes the flowers.
8. The rich corn grows on the meadows.
9. From the north comes a wintry blast.
10. The bellowing thunder shakes earth and sky.
11. Our train speeds from city to city.
12. The ambitious strive for fame.
13. We tread our native hills again.
14. They tear the old flag from its staff.
15. The enemy throws barriers in the way.

[1] If in doubt about the past form of any verb, refer to pages 140–145.

XCI. THE PRESENT TENSE. TIME INDEFINITE.

It may be well for us to study more closely the root of the verb, and the form in *s*, taking for example the verbs *move* and *write*.

The sentence, *She moves gracefully*, does not necessarily mean that she is actually moving now, but that when she moves the act is graceful.

So also when I say, *You write beautifully*, I may mean, not that you are writing *now*, but that whenever you write, the writing is beautiful.

If I wish to assert that the writing is going on *now*, I am more likely to say, *You are writing beautifully*.[1]

The root of a verb and the form in *s* are sometimes used to express past time.

Example: Cæsar describes clearly the situation of his camp.

This is called the **historical present.**

Exercise.

(*a*) In the following sentences, which verbs express indefinite time?

(*b*) Rewrite the sentences so that they will express no other than present time. If necessary, use modifying words.

(*c*) Rewrite the sentences so that they will express past time.

1. We are paring apples.
2. The waves dash against the rocks.
3. The sun sets behind the hills.
4. My father uses a gold pen.
5. Old Dobbin feeds on the hillside.

[1] Even such expressions as *You are writing beautifully* are not absolutely definite, and we often find it necessary to add qualifying words to make them so.

6. The schoolboys gather on the ice.
7. The President is receiving the foreign ministers.
8. Wolves howl and make night hideous.
9. Rain falls on the grave of our loved one.
10. Towser lies in the sun and sleeps.
11. Dogs worry the sheep.
12. My uncle strains his ear to catch the notes of my harp.
13. Hearts respond to kindred hearts.
14. A high purpose keeps us happy.
15. Chemists turn scrap iron into ink.
16. I linger on the shore.
17. The lights twinkle from the rocks.

XCII. THE FUTURE TENSE.

The root and the *-s* form of the verb, as we have seen, express present or indefinite time;[1] as, *I write*, *he talks*.

We have also seen that past time is expressed by an inflection of the root; as, *I wrote*, *I talked*.

We commonly express future time by using *shall* or *will* with the root; as, *I shall write*, *you will write*, *I shall talk*, *he will talk*.

If there had been no difference in meaning between *shall* and *will*, doubtless one of these words would long since have disappeared from the language.[2]

In declarative sentences, *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third, denote futurity: they denote what is likely to happen; as, *I shall write*, *you will write*, *he will write*. These three sentences merely imply that the writing will be done at some future time.

[1] The root of the verb and the form in *s* are also sometimes used to express future time; as, *I go to New York to-morrow*. *My friend meets me there the next day*.

[2] It is very important to preserve the distinction between *shall* and *will*. Many foreigners, and even natives of the United States, use *will* where they should use *shall*. *Shall* is seldom misused.

On the other hand, *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third, in declarative sentences, denote not only future time, but present determination. Thus, *I will write* expresses a determination to write: *you shall write, he shall write*, imply a determination to require the writing to be done.

In asking questions, *shall* (never *will*) is used with the subject *I* or *we*. With other subjects, the same auxiliary (whether *shall* or *will*) is used that is expected in the answer. Thus, *Shall you take the train at four o'clock?* (*I shall*); *Will you call on me at three?* (*I will.*)

Exercise.

(*a*) Copy the first seven sentences below, and fill the blanks with *shall* or *will* to express the speaker's determination or promise to bring about the act named.

1. My son —— take my answer to you to-morrow.
2. Yes, my son, your request —— be granted.
3. I myself —— see that your note is mailed.
4. We —— grant you an audience soon.
5. The umbrella —— be returned this evening.
6. You —— have as many coppers as you please.
7. I —— give you minute directions.

(*b*) Copy the following sentences, and fill the blanks with either *shall* or *will*, so as to express a probable future event, but with no promise or pledge.

1. We —— have rain very soon.
2. By what express —— I send the books?
3. I think we —— have letters from Paris to-day.
4. We —— have to go early for tickets.
5. Mr. S. —— live but a few weeks.
6. I —— hear of his death before I return.
7. We —— regret losing our good neighbor.
8. You —— hear from the family daily.
9. When —— we meet again?

XCIII. PARTICIPLES, OR VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

Two forms derived from verbs are called **participles**. This name is given them because they *partake* of the nature of the verb and of the adjective. Hence they are also called **verbal adjectives**.

One of these participles is made by annexing *ing* to the root of the verb; as, mov*ing*, read*ing*, writ*ing*, speak*ing*.

The regiment, moving the battery to the hill, renews the engagement.

Here *moving* modifies *regiment* like an adjective, and, like a verb, takes the object, *battery*.

The regiment is driving the enemy before it.

In this sentence the participle *driving* follows the verb, and modifies the subject *regiment* like a predicate adjective. As a verb, it takes the object *enemy*.

The participle in *ing* is called an **imperfect participle** because it represents an action or state as incomplete, or continuing. When combined with some form of *be*, it makes what is called the **progressive form** of the verb from which it is derived; as, *is moving*, *am going*, *was driving*, *will be writing*.

Another participle, called the **perfect participle**, is formed from many verbs by adding *ed* to the root; as, *move*, *moved; deny*, *denied; betray*, *betrayed*. From certain other verbs this participle is formed irregularly; as, *spoken* from the verb *speak*, *gone* from *go*, *bred* from *breed*. These irregular forms may be learned from the tables of irregular verbs, pages 140–145.

Like the participle in *ing*, the perfect participle is used as a verbal adjective, but it represents the action as com-

pleted; hence the name *perfect*. When combined with some form of *be*, it makes what is called the **passive form** of the verb from which it is derived.

Examples: The merchant, *deceived* by his partner, failed.
The merchant *was deceived* by his partner.

Being, *having*, and *having been*, combined with some other participle, form **compound participles**: as, *being broken*, *having broken*, *having been broken*.

Exercise.

PRESENT.		PAST.	PARTICIPLES.	
fall	*falls*	*fell*	*falling*	*fallen*

(*a*) Arrange all the forms of each of the following verbs as in the model above.

see	know	paint	row	study	throw
grow	sleep	speak	strike	take	weave

(*b*) Point out the participles in the following sentences; tell what kind each is; also tell how they resemble verbs, and how adjectives.

(*c*) Analyze the second, third, and sixth sentences.

1. My little family were gathered round a charming fire, telling stories of the past and laying schemes for the future.
2. The great tree, swaying fearfully, soon yielded to the blast.
3. The camels, loaded with rich goods, picked their way slowly over the desert.
4. Just before midnight, we saw the moon rising above the mountains.
5. When we awoke, the sun was seen far above the horizon.
6. When we visited our trap, we found a poor hedgehog caught by his forepaw.
7. A penny given willingly is of greater value than a pound given grudgingly.

The penny was given willingly, but the pound grudgingly.
The spider, spinning his web, was an inspiration to Bruce.

XCIV. INFINITIVES, OR VERBAL NOUNS.

We found in the preceding lesson that verbs have two forms, called participles, or verbal adjectives.

One of these forms, namely, the form ending in *ing*, is also used as a **verbal noun**; that is, it partakes of the nature of a verb and of a noun.

Reading maketh a full man, and writing an exact man.

Reading and *writing* in this example have the noun nature because they are used as subjects, and they have the verb nature because they will take the modifiers of verbs; as, *Reading good books maketh a full man, and writing carefully maketh an exact man.*

I do not enjoy writing letters.

Here *writing* shows its noun nature by its use as the object of the verb *do enjoy*, and its verb nature by taking the object *letters*.

Its noun nature may also be shown by the fact that it will take before it a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, *I do not like his writing so carelessly.*

True worth is in being, not seeming.

Being and *seeming* in this sentence are verbal nouns, objects of the preposition *in*.

Rest is not quitting the busy career.

Here *quitting* is a predicate noun after the verb *is*. It shows its verbal nature by taking the object *career*.

The verbal noun formed by adding *ing* to the root of the verb is often called an **infinitive** in *ing*.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the verbal nouns in the following exercise and tell why they should be so classed.

(*b*) Analyze the first three sentences.

1. You will greatly oblige me by sending those books.
2. Reading history is a daily exercise in our school.
3. The teacher urges our writing a short composition every day.
4. We were much interested in studying the history of Greece.
5. He was badly hurt in consequence of meddling with the machinery.
6. You will gain much by rising early in the morning.
7. The boys disturbed the sick man by blowing horns and firing cannon.
8. The young man gained his promotion by attending to his duties with strict conscientiousness.
9. I insist on traveling by boat.
10. Seeing is believing.
11. On examining the book, I became convinced of its trashy character.
12. By respecting ourselves, we gain the respect of others.

XCV. INFINITIVES, OR VERBAL NOUNS (*continued*).

Phrases formed by combining the preposition *to* with the root of a verb may be used as verbal nouns.

To sing songs is a pleasant exercise.

Here *to sing*, as a noun, is the subject of the sentence, and, as a verb, it takes the object *songs*.

The pupil wishes to study his lesson.

In this sentence, the phrase *to study*, as a noun, is the object of the verb *wishes*, and, as a verb, it takes the object *lesson*.

Such phrases are usually called **infinitive phrases**, and they may be used as nouns, or adjectives, or adverbs.

The following are examples of verbal noun phrases.

Examples: *To advance* is impossible. (Subject.)
The boy dislikes *to study*. (Object.)
The man seems *to move*. (Complement.)
It is my wish *to go*. (Appositive.)

Such phrases will take the modifiers of verbs.

Examples: To advance *rapidly* is impossible. (Adverb.)
The boy dislikes to study his *lessons*. (Object.)
The pupil is to graduate *young*. (Predicate adjective.)

Since these verb forms may be used as nouns, and since they are derived from, and will take the modifiers of, verbs, they are called **verbal nouns.**

Thus there are two verbal nouns — one ending in *ing* (see preceding lesson), and the other consisting of the root of the verb, usually preceded by the preposition *to*. The former, as we have seen, is called the infinitive in *ing*. The latter may be called the **root infinitive**; though it is also called the **infinitive**, or, perhaps more frequently, an **infinitive phrase.**

The root infinitive when used as a noun, often has the same meaning as the infinitive in *ing* derived from the same verb, and the two are **grammatical equivalents.**

Examples: To sing is pleasant = Singing is pleasant.
The teacher urged us to study the lessons = The teacher urged our studying the lessons.
He is about to go = He is about going.

There are a few prepositions that the root infinitive will follow.

Examples: He is willing to do anything *but* (to) work.
They do nothing *except* (to) complain.
He is *about* to join the class.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the verbal nouns in the following sentences, and show why they are properly so called.

1. I wished to enter college, and hoped to receive aid from my uncle.
2. To retreat was difficult, to advance, impossible.
3. The pupil wished to study geometry and algebra.
4. To see her is to love her.
5. Learn to labor and to wait.
6. It is your duty to obey the rules.
7. He consents to anything except surrendering his convictions.
8. The Cambria is to sail to-morrow.

(*b*) Substitute, in the sentences below, grammatical equivalents for the words in Italics.

1. Flee from the wrath *to come*.
2. He began *to rebuke* them.
3. He was about *driving* to town.
4. The boat was about *being driven* upon the rocks.
5. They had reason *to complain*.
6. This would allow *his going*.

XCVI. VERBAL NOUNS AND VERBAL ADJECTIVES CONTRASTED.

The verbal noun in *ing* must not be confounded with the verbal adjective (or imperfect participle) in *ing*. They are exactly alike in form, but one is used as a noun and the other as an adjective.

Examples: —

Playing ball is excellent exercise. (Verbal noun, subject of the verb.)

He was expert at playing ball. (Verbal noun, object of *at*.)

The boy playing ball is only fifteen years old. (Verbal adjective, or imperfect participle, modifying the noun *boy*.)

The boy is playing ball. (Predicate adjective, or imperfect participle, complement of the verb *is*; combined with the verb *is*, it makes the progressive form of the verb *play*.)

Exercise.

(*a*) In the following sentences, point out the verbal nouns and the verbal adjectives in *ing*, and give reasons for the classification.

(*b*) Analyze the sentences, and parse such words as the teacher may designate.

1. The great events then passing before him were unheeded.
2. I have found a plant answering to the description.
3. The clerk has finished counting the money.
4. The star now blazing in the east is Sirius.
5. Cyrus issued a decree authorizing the Jews' return.
6. Then followed an empire representing a higher social life.
7. Night was made hideous by the howling of wolves.
8. Here we see a state crumbling and a civilization verging towards decay.
9. A clause limiting a noun is an adjective element.
10. Humming all day his breezy note of joy, the bee makes harbor at our perfumed door.
11. Whizzing past, sang the cruel shaft of the Indian warrior.
12. The man doing most for a cause is not often the man voicing his own praises.
13. Linnæus, knelt beside the mountain gorses, thanking God for their beauty.
14. Have you heard the message the brooklets are bringing?
15. The angry billows were beating against the ship.
16. I was lulled by the murmuring of the waters.
17. He spoke of the two centuries succeeding the fall of Jerusalem.
18. The heroism of the barbarian was a devouring flame, ever blackening, if not consuming, every other good quality.
19. The opposing armies were occupied with the burning of their dead.
20. Even if the sculptor has borrowed the grouping from the poet, we still consider him deserving of great praise.
21. The artist has excelled in animating the rigid stone with living forms, and inserting living senses within the breathing marble.
22. In insisting upon our rights, we are sometimes losing the sense of duty.

XCVII. VERBS, REGULAR AND IRREGULAR.

Exercise.

(1) *do*, (2) *does*, (3) *did*, (4) *doing*, (5) *done*.

These are the five most common forms of the verb *do*.

In the same way, arrange the forms of the following verbs.

blow, come, fly, give, load, receive, rise, row, save.

By examining your table of verb forms, you will see that some verbs have five different forms, while others have but four. These five forms are named as follows: —

(1) The infinitive, or root form — the form that may be preceded by *to*.

(2) The *-s* form.

(3) The past tense.

(4) The imperfect (or present) participle.

(5) The perfect (or past) participle.

The perfect participle may always be combined with *have* to form a verb-phrase; as, *have done*, *have flown*, *have given*.

In verbs that have but four forms, the past tense and the perfect participle are alike.

Example: (1) move, (2) moves, (3) moved, (4) moving, (5) moved.

A verb whose past tense and perfect participle are formed by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the root is called a **regular verb**: as, *row*, *rowed*; *love*, *loved*. All other verbs are classed as **irregular**.[1]

[1] Most if not all irregular verbs have come down to us from the Anglo-Saxon. They are generally short words, and are much used. All new verbs, and nearly all that have come into the language from other sources than the Anglo-Saxon are regular.

From the root of a regular verb all the other forms may easily be made. For example, *talk* is the root form of a regular verb. By adding *s* we have the second form, *talks;* by adding *ed* we have the third and the fifth form, *talked;* by adding *ing* we have the fourth form, *talking.*

In naming the forms of a verb, two are usually omitted — the form in *s* and the form in *ing.* The first is always made by adding the termination *s* or *es* to the root, and the second by adding *ing;* as, *love-s, lov-ing; go-es, go-ing; read-s, read-ing.*[1]

Three forms, namely, the root, the past tense, and the perfect participle, are called the **principal parts** of the verb.

Exercise.

(1) Tell which verbs in the following sentences are regular and which irregular, and why; also give their (three) principal parts.

(2) Rewrite the sentences, changing the tense of each verb from the present to the past, or the reverse.

1. The wind sways the trees.
2. In his hand he holds a ballot.
3. The sun withdraws his rays.
4. Clouds of smoke fill the air.
5. James strove for excellence.
6. Mrs. Gray chose the smaller volume.
7. His mates gave him a good name.
8. The plowboy drove his team afield.
9. The youth manages his horses well.
10. These grapes grew by the Hudson.
11. My mother requests my dismissal.
12. The sergeant told us his adventure.
13. Father reads aloud each evening.

[1] The rules for spelling sometimes require the dropping of the final *e* or the doubling of the final consonant before adding the letters that form the inflection; as, *love, loving; begin, beginning.*

XCVIII. TABLES OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Table I. contains the principal parts of all irregular verbs whose past tense and perfect participle are unlike.

Most errors in the use of irregular verbs occur with those in Table I. Let it be remembered that the past tense must not be used with *have* (*has*, *had*). Nothing is more uncouth in speech than expressions like *have drove* and *has went*. Equally disagreeable is the use of the perfect participle for the past tense; as, *she seen*, *they done*.

TABLE I.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
arise	arose	arisen
be *or* am	was	been
bear, *bring forth*	bore	born,[1] borne
bear, *carry*	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten, beat
begin	began	begun
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave, *split*	cleft, clove (clave)[2]	cleft, cleaved, cloven
come	came	come
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate (ĕat)	eaten (ĕat)
fall	fell	fallen

[1] *Born* is used only in the passive voice.

[2] The words in parentheses in this and the following tables represent forms which, though at one time common, are now seldom used.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hidden, hid
know	knew	known
lie, *recline*	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang, rung	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk, shrunken
sing	sung, sang	sung
sink	sunk, sank	sunk
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slidden, slid
smite	smote	smitten
speak	spoke (spake)	spoken
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore (sware)	sworn
swim	swam, swum	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
write	wrote	written

Table II.

This table contains the principal parts of all irregular verbs whose past tense and perfect participle are alike.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE AND PERF. PART.	PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE AND PERF. PART.
abide	abode	lead	led
behold	beheld	leave	left
beseech	besought	lend	lent
bind	bound	let	let
bleed	bled	lose	lost
breed	bred	make	made
bring	brought	mean	meant
build	built	meet	met
burst	burst	pay	paid
buy	bought	put	put
cast	cast	read	rĕad
catch	caught	rend	rent
cling	clung	say	said
cost	cost	seek	sought
creep	crept	sell	sold
cut	cut	send	sent
deal	dealt	set	set
feed	fed	shed	shed
feel	felt	shoe	shod
fight	fought	shoot	shot
find	found	shut	shut
flee	fled	sit	sat
fling	flung	sleep	slept
get	got (gotten)	sling	slung
grind	ground	slink	slunk
have	had	spend	spent
hear	heard	spin	spun (span)
hit	hit	spit	spit (spat)
hold	held	split	split
hurt	hurt	spread	spread
keep	kept	stand	stood
lay	laid	stick	stuck

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE AND PERF. PART.	PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE AND PERF. PART.
sting	stung	think	thought
string	strung	thrust	thrust
sweep	swept	weep	wept
swing	swung	win	won
teach	taught	wring	wrung
tell	told		

Table III.

This table includes verbs that are both regular and irregular.

A.

Verbs in which the regular form is preferred.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
bend	bended, bent	bended, bent
bereave	bereaved, bereft	bereaved, bereft
blend	blended, blent	blended, blent
bless	blessed, blest	blessed, blest
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt
cleave, *stick*	cleaved (clave)	cleaved
clothe	clothed, clad	clothed, clad
curse	cursed, curst	cursed, curst
dive	dived (dove)	dived (dove)
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
dress	dressed, drest	dressed, drest
gild	gilded, gilt	gilded, gilt
heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove
hew	hewed	hewed, hewn
lade	laded	laded, laden
lean	leaned, leant	leaned, leant
leap	leaped, leapt	leaped, leapt
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
mow	mowed	mowed, mown
pen, *shut up*	penned, pent	penned, pent
plead	pleaded (plĕad *or* pled)	pleaded (plĕad *or* pled)

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
prove	proved	proved, proven
reave	reaved, reft	reaved, reft
rive	rived	rived, riven
saw	sawed	sawed, sawn
seethe	seethed (sod)	seethed, sodden
shape	shaped	shaped, shapen
shave	shaved	shaved, shaven
shear	sheared	sheared, shorn
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt
sow	sowed	sowed, sown
spell	spelled, spelt	spelled, spelt
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
stave	staved, stove	staved, stove
stay	stayed, staid	stayed, staid
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen
wake	waked, woke	waked, woke
wax, *grow*	waxed	waxed (waxen)
wed	wedded	wedded, wed
whet	whetted, whet	whetted, whet
work	worked, wrought	worked, wrought

B.

Verbs in which the irregular form is preferred.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked, awoke
belay	belaid, belayed	belaid, belayed
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted
crow	crew, crowed	crowed
dare	durst, dared	dared
dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled
gird	girt, girded	girt, girded
grave	graved	graven, graved
hang	hung, hanged[1]	hung, hanged
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted

[1] Referring to execution by suspension, *hanged* is preferable to *hung*.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
rap	rapt, rapped	rapt, rapped
rid	rid, ridded	rid, ridded
shine	shone (shined)	shone (shined)
show	showed	shown, showed
shred	shred, shredded	shred, shredded
shrive	shrived, shrove	shriven, shrived
slit	slit, slitted	slit, slitted
speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded
strew	strewed	strewn, strewed
strow	strowed	strown, strowed
sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated
thrive	throve, thrived	thrived, thriven
wet	wet (wetted)	wet (wetted)
wind	wound (winded)	wound (winded)

The verbs of the following list also are irregular; but as they lack one or more of the principal parts, they are called **defective verbs.**

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PRESENT.	PAST.
can	could	ought	——
may	might	——	quoth
must	——	beware	——
shall	should	methinks	methought
will	would		

All the participles are wanting in defective verbs.

The verb *ought*, when used to express past duty or obligation, is followed by what is called the perfect infinitive — a use peculiar to itself because it has no past form.

Example: I ought *to have gone* yesterday.

Other verbs expressing past time are used in the past tense followed by the root infinitive.

Example: I intended *to go* yesterday.

XCIX. VERBS, COMPLETE AND INCOMPLETE.

(Review Lessons XXXV.–XXXVIII., pages 50–56.)

Exercise.

In the following sentences, (*a*) point out the incomplete verbs; (*b*) state whether they are followed by an object or an attribute; (*c*) if by an attribute, tell of what kind and what it modifies.

1. That suit becomes you.
2. Jane became a musician.
3. She walks a queen.
4. She walks to and fro.
5. He walked the floor.
6. The horse appears lame.
7. The prophet appeared.
8. The mother's anxiety continues.
9. The physician continues hopeful.
10. The fledglings grew.
11. The birds grew tame.
12. Arnold turned traitor.

C. VERBS, COPULATIVE AND ATTRIBUTIVE.

Intransitive verbs that require a complement are called **copulative verbs**. The complements of copulative verbs are either nouns (or pronouns) or adjectives. Such complements are called attributes of the subject. (See page 54.)

Intransitive verbs that do not require a complement, and all transitive verbs, may be resolved (sometimes with no change of meaning) into a copula and an attribute.

Examples: The wind *blows* = The wind *is blowing.*
The pupil *studied* = The pupil *was studying.*

Such verbs are called **attributive** because they contain in themselves attributes of the subject. Thus, in the first sentence, *blowing* is an attribute of the wind, and in the second, *the act of studying* is ascribed to the pupil.

Even the copulative verbs (except *be*) have two offices, viz. copulative and attributive, but their chief use being

copulative, they are so classed. The copula *be* may be used in expressing their meaning.

Examples: Sugar *tastes* sweet = Sugar *is* sweet to the taste.
The snow *felt* cold = The snow *was* cold to the touch.

An attributive verb not only makes an assertion, but it indicates what is asserted of the subject.

A copulative verb, on the other hand, requires a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a phrase, or a clause to tell what is asserted of the subject.

Examples: ATTRIBUTIVE: The snow *melts.* The storm *raged.*
COPULATIVE: Elizabeth *was queen.* It *was she.* The ice *will be thick.* The lad *looks in health.* The girl *looks well.* The result *was what we anticipated.*

In these sentences, the words in Italics are the simple predicates. The unmodified predicate of a sentence, therefore, must contain a verb, and it may contain a verb and a word or words expressing an attribute of the subject.

Assuming an attribute is quite unlike predicating one.

ATTRIBUTES ASSUMED.	ATTRIBUTES PREDICATED.
The tyrant sparrow.	The sparrow is a tyrant.
The frosted cake.	The cake is frosted.

Exercise.

In each of the following sentences, (*a*) point out the simple predicate; (*b*) change each attributive verb to its equivalent copulative verb and attribute.

1. One's house is his castle.
2. Wrens sang sweetly.
3. Our aim must be high.
4. The clouds gather.
5. His face is gravely beautiful.
6. The sailor boy dreamed.
7. Very pleasant is the memory.
8. The sun shone clear.
9. We take the short route.
10. Terror reigned.
11. Less was impossible.
12. The combat deepens.

CI. VERBS, COPULATIVE AND ATTRIBUTIVE (*continued*).

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the attributive verbs, and resolve each one into a copula and an attribute.

(*b*) In the remaining sentences, name the copula or copulative verb, and tell what it connects.

(*c*) In every sentence, classify the attribute as noun, adjective, or participle.

Notice that the unmodified predicate is either an attributive verb, or a copulative verb and an attribute.

1. The morning light is breaking.
2. The sun will soon gild the hilltops.
3. Some seeming ills are blessings in disguise.
4. Even wise men differ in opinion.
5. A shorter call would have been less tiresome.
6. Our welcome seemed unusually warm.
7. Is your name Shylock?
8. The minority report has been adopted.
9. The camel's gait appears awkward.
10. Silence reigns profound.
11. John has become a skilled mechanic.
12. Do France and Germany continue unfriendly?
13. The fledglings grew strong.
14. This granite will one day crumble.
15. Our petitions have been slighted.
16. The sun's rays linger on the hills.

It will be seen that a sentence containing an attributive verb does not always have the same meaning as one that contains the same verb resolved into a copula and an attribute. *The sun rises in the east*, may mean that it is rising now, or that it always rises in the east. *Trees grow*, may mean that they are growing now, or that it is a characteristic of trees to grow.

CII. THE ACTIVE AND THE PASSIVE VOICE.

We express precisely the same thought in the two following sentences: —

The man bought a horse. A horse was bought by the man.

In the first sentence, the word *man*, the name of the one who performs the act of buying, is the subject; in the second sentence, the word *horse*, the name of the object bought, is the subject.

Voice is a form of the verb which indicates whether its subject names the doer or the receiver of the action.

A verb is in the **active voice** when its subject names the doer of the action.

Example: The farmer gathers the harvest.

A verb is in the **passive voice** when its subject names the receiver of the action.

Example: The harvest is gathered by the farmer.

Exercise.

Her path was strewn with flowers. (Passive Voice.)
Flowers strewed her path. (Active Voice.)

The verb *was strewn* is in the passive voice because the subject *path* names the thing acted upon. (What *was strewn?*)

The subject of the passive form becomes the direct object of the verb in the active.

(*a*) Tell whether the verbs in the following sentences are in the active or in the passive voice, and why.

(*b*) Rewrite each sentence, changing the voice of the

verb, and tell what change is made in the order of the sentence.

(*c*) Analyze the fifth and thirteenth sentences.

1. The ways were strewn with flowers.
2. One faithful harp shall praise thee.
3. Our toils are crowned with success.
4. He stemmed the wild torrent.
5. Greece did at length a learned race produce.
6. The eastern sky is spanned by a beautiful bow.
7. Winter has made a barren waste.
8. Doubtful words often afford ground for quarrels.
9. Now home his footsteps he hath turned.
10. True expression gilds all objects.
11. Their thirst was slaked at the crystal stream.
12. My thoughts are bent on your success.
13. Mice and rats were luxuriously fed by the thoughtless children.
14. We will defeat the trickster's purpose.
15. The sun has stored the garners with his gifts.

CIII. INTRANSITIVE VERBS HAVE NO PASSIVE VOICE.

We have found in the preceding exercise that when the verb in a sentence is changed from the active to the passive voice, the name of the object receiving the action becomes the subject.

ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
John bought a sled.	The sled was bought by John.
The dog tore the flesh.	The flesh was torn by the dog.

From this it follows that verbs having no objects, that is, intransitive verbs, cannot be changed into the passive voice; they have no objects to become the subjects in the passive.

Example: The rain falls gently. The enemy retreated.

However, an intransitive verb followed by a preposition and its object may sometimes be made to assume the passive

form. In this case, the object of the preposition becomes the subject, and the preposition itself becomes a part of the verb-phrase.

Examples: The men *played* for money = Money *was played for* by the men.

No one *had thought* of danger = Danger *had been thought of* by no one.[1]

Exercise.

(*a*) Change the following sentences from the active to the passive voice, or give a reason why they cannot be thus changed. Do not change the tense of the verb.

(*b*) Analyze the last two sentences.

1. We expect good news.
2. The traveler feels the heat.
3. The wounded bird escaped.
4. I seized the opportunity.
5. The morning dawned calm and clear.
6. The modern steamer sails swiftly.
7. Our farmers look for fine crops.
8. My friend's mind acts quickly.
9. The merchant recognizes the young man's ability.
10. The general examined their claims.
11. The combatants had rushed forward.
12. The artist will decorate the arch.
13. You have placed his act in a false light.
14. The audience will hear an eloquent plea.
15. Such an example incites young men to a noble career.
16. Children welcome the springtime.
17. The invalid sat in his armchair all the day.
18. He dealt kindly with his son.
19. Every day's experience raised the boy in my esteem.
20. A horse trod on the child's foot.
21. Health and plenty cheered the laboring swain.

[1] The phrase formed by an intransitive verb and a preposition is equivalent to a transitive verb; the noun following being in effect the object of the verb so strengthened.

CIV. FORMATION OF THE PASSIVE VOICE.

(Review Lesson XCIII., pages 131, 132.)

We have seen what changes take place in the construction of a sentence when its verb is changed from the active to the passive voice, and also why intransitive verbs cannot be used in the passive. Some intransitive verbs may be used in forming a verb-phrase that resembles the passive.

Examples: The melancholy days *are come.*
The lines *are fallen* unto me in pleasant places.

Show from the definition of *voice* on page 149 that *are come* and *are fallen*, in the examples above, are not passive verb-phrases.

In Lesson XXXVII. (pages 53, 54), we learned that the verb *be* has several forms (*am, is, are, was, were*), and that, in a sentence, it usually connects the subject with some word or words called the complement.

The flower is beautiful.

In this sentence, the verb *is* connects the predicate adjective *beautiful* with the subject *flower*.

In the passive voice of any verb, some form of *be* does the same thing.

The man was deceived by him.

Here the verb *was* connects the subject *man* with the verbal adjective (participle) *deceived*.

Such adjectives, as already learned, are called *verbal* because they are derived from, and will take the modifiers of, verbs. However, they are more frequently called **perfect participles**, — *perfect* because they express completed action, and *participles* because, while perform-

ing the office of adjectives, they may take the modifiers of verbs.

Every passive form of the verb, therefore, is made by joining some form of the verb *be* to the perfect participle of a transitive verb.

Exercise.

(*a*) In the following sentences, give the subjects and predicates, and tell which verbs are transitive and which are intransitive.

(*b*) Rewrite the sentences containing transitive verbs, changing them into the passive voice, and in each case tell how the passive form is made.

(*c*) Analyze the sentences.

1. Golden fruits on loaded branches shine.
2. Pleasures pass like fleeting dreams.
3. The innocent sometimes bear the blame.
4. This author's pious thought lives in each page.
5. Drunkenness banishes the reason.
6. Her face marked each hour of the day with love.
7. We will persevere to the end.
8. Moments of joy come in the night-time of sorrow.
9. She walked in Paradise.
10. With thee depart the warmth and light of life.
11. Some writers affect a lofty style.
12. The water has risen above the levee.
13. I will not touch thee, sparkling bowl.
14. The morning dew mirrored a million suns.
15. This weeping child has wandered from his home.
16. Jealousy has turned the man's gentle nature into bitterness.
17. A false report increased the anxiety.
18. He welcomed his guest with real warmth.
19. The hot color rushed to the prisoner's face.
20. My companion took advantage of his years.
21. A man's thoughts sometimes outspeed the lightning.
22. Each year beholds the farmer's patient toil.
23. Their voices gave forth a glad shout.

CV. MODES.

In some languages the verb is inflected to indicate the mode, or manner, in which it asserts action, being, or state. Such inflection is called **mode**; but in English there is no such inflection.

Mode is the manner in which verbs assert action, being, or state.

Examples: —

The wind *blows* fiercely. (A simple statement.)
If he *were* here, I should be glad. (A conditional assertion.)
Come home at once. (A command.)

A verb that is used to declare a fact or to ask a question is said to be in the **indicative mode.**

Examples: The blind receive their sight, the lame walk, the lepers are cleansed, and the deaf hear. Who hath believed our report?

A verb that is used to express a command or an entreaty is said to be in the **imperative mode.**

Examples: Behold (ye) your prison-bars.
Give (thou) us this day our daily bread.

The subject of an imperative sentence is the pronoun that points out the one addressed: and, as the person addressed must be present and may readily be identified, the pronoun is usually omitted. When the subject is expressed, it follows the verb: as, *Follow thou me.*

Requests and entreaties are often made by using sentences containing auxiliaries: as, *May I take your pen?* The name **imperative**, however, is applied to such sentences only as allow the omission of a subject.

Do and *be* are the only auxiliaries used in the imperative mode.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the simple subject and the predicate verb of each of the following sentences.

(*b*) In what mode and tense is each verb, and why?

(*c*) Point out one verb in the passive voice, and show how it is formed.

(*d*) Point out two or more complex sentences, and the clauses that make them complex.

1. Be noble! and the nobleness that lies
In other men, sleeping but never dead,
Will rise in majesty to meet thine own.

2. Men are bound together by a thousand ties.
3. Do not the innocent suffer in the penalties of the guilty?
4. Love your enemies. Bless them that curse you.
5. We take no note of time but from its loss.

6. Be not like dumb, driven cattle!
Be a hero in the strife.

7. What! is the jay more precious than the lark,
Because his feathers are more beautiful?

8. Does good music ever send you to sleep?
9. Dryden's genius was of that sort which catches fire by its own motion.
10. This above all, to thine own self be true.

11. Errors like straws upon the surface flow:
He who would search for pearls must dive below.

12. Hear the just law, the judgment of the skies!
He that hates truth shall be the dupe of lies.

13. Think, too, in what a woeful plight
The wretch must be whose pocket's light.

14. Did Raphael's pencil never choose to fall?
Say, are his works transfigurations all?

15. Pluck up thy spirits, look cheerfully upon me.
16. These mountain forms now seem a family of giants.

CVI. CONJUGATION.

A verb in English has but few inflections, or changes in spelling, even the most irregular having but five inflected forms in common use. As substitutes for inflections, we use, in combination with participles and infinitives, certain words called **auxiliaries**.

Among the most common auxiliaries are, *do* (*did*), *have* (*has*, *had*), *shall*, and *will*.

The combination of an auxiliary with a participle or an infinitive to make an assertion is called a **verb-phrase**. (See Lesson XXXII., page 47.)

Examples: Do go, has gone, shall come, may be, should write.

Verb-phrases are often called **forms** of the verb, because they are used in sentences in our language just as real forms, or inflections, are used in inflected languages.

An orderly arrangement of the forms of a verb in the different modes and tenses is called its conjugation.

The word *form* is also used for another purpose. The usual form of a verb or verb-phrase is called the **common form** (of speech).

A verb-phrase in which the auxiliary *do* or *did* is used immediately before the verb, is called the **emphatic form**, because such forms make assertions in an emphatic manner.

Examples: I *do* study. He *does* try. She *did* return.

Certain peculiar verb forms found in the Bible, and used also in poetry and in addresses to the Deity, are called **ancient** or **solemn forms** (or styles).

Examples: Thou *hast been* our dwelling-place.
She of her penury *hath cast* in all that she had.
He *giveth* to all liberally, and *upbraideth* not.

CVII. CONJUGATION (*continued*).

A verb is said to be in the first, second, or third person, according as its subject is in the first, second, or third person. It is also said to be in the singular number when its subject is singular, and in the plural number when its subject is plural.

A verb, therefore, takes its **number** and **person** from its subject. As will be seen hereafter, the form of a verb does not often depend upon the person and number of its subject.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE*.

Indicative Mode — Common Form.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Per.	I am	We are
Sec. Per.	You are	You are
Third Per.	He is	They are

You will notice in this tense, three different forms of the verb — *am*, *is*, and *are*. These forms, as may readily be seen, are not inflections of *be*. They are derived from different Anglo-Saxon verbs.

Am is used only in the present tense and with the pronoun *I* as its subject.

Is is never used except in the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number.

In the plural there is but one form — *are*. The same form appears in the second person singular, because in common speech we use the plural pronoun *you* to designate one person.

The pronoun *you*, whether it means one or more than one, always requires the plural form of the verb.

Exercise 1.

Insert *am*, *is*, or *are* in each blank below, and give a reason for your choice.

1. These vases —— fine, and I —— glad to own them.
2. The summons —— received, and the man —— here.
3. You and I —— going, though he —— not.
4. One of the trees —— in bloom, but three —— dead
5. You and John —— to blame, I —— sure.
6. The pen —— mislaid, and he —— looking for it.
7. The farmer's oats —— sold, and he —— returning home.
8. There —— six in this party, and only two —— in that.
9. The woods —— filled with the songs of birds.
10. Neither the doctor nor his assistant —— present.
11. A flock of sheep —— grazing in the field.
12. Our school —— usually dismissed at four o'clock, but the pupils —— sometimes detained a few minutes.
13. The committee —— now in session, but many of the members —— anxious to go home.
14. I can now see the men who —— in the boat.
15. Neither road —— pleasant, both —— rugged and hilly.

Exercise 2.

Past Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Per.	I was	We were
Sec. Per.	You were	You were
Third Per.	He was	They were

(*a*) How many forms of the verb do you find in the past tense?

(*b*) What is the plural form in this tense?

(*c*) Why does this form appear in the second person singular?

(*d*) Substitute some noun for the subject *he* in the third person singular, and complete the sentence.

(*e*) Substitute some noun for the subject *they* in the third person plural, and complete the sentence.

(*f*) Write six sentences that will show the different forms of the verb *be* in the past tense, and arrange them as in the conjugation above.

Future Tense.

(Review Lesson XCII., page 129.)

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Per.	I shall be	We shall be
Sec. Per.	You will be	You will be
Third Per.	He will be	They will be

The forms of the future tense, as written above, express a future event.

(*g*) Write the forms of *be* (in the future tense,) so as to express *determination*.

No verb (except the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*) is inflected in the future tense; hence, the only thing to learn in connection with this tense is the proper use of *shall* and *will*.

Imperative Mode.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Sec. Per.	Be, *or* be thou	Be, *or* be ye *or* you

CVIII. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE* (*continued*).

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

In the interrogative form, the subject follows the verb or its first auxiliary.

Examples: Am I? Will they come? Had all been seen?

The interrogative conjugation of the future tense is peculiar. It is as follows: —

(a) **To Express Futurity.**

First Per.	Shall I be?	Shall we be?
Sec. Per.	Shall you be?	Shall you be?
Third Per.	Will he be?	Will they be?

(b) **To Express Determination.**

First Per.	(wanting)	(wanting)[1]
Sec. Per.	Will you be?	Will you be?
Third Per.	Shall he be?	Shall they be?

Exercise.

(*a*) Answer each of the following questions so as to show the proper use of *shall* or *will*.

(*b*) Point out in each question and answer, whether determination or mere futurity is implied. If determination, tell whose determination.

1. Shall I (we) be in time?
2. Shall you be at the train?
3. Will he (they) be with you?
4. Will you be my guide?
5. Shall he (they) be invited?

Progressive and Passive Forms.

The **progressive form** of a verb is made by combining the imperfect participle of the verb with the forms of *be* as given in the foregoing tables of conjugations. In like manner, the **passive form** is made by combining the perfect participle of a verb with the forms of *be*.

Progressive forms: *is going; was writing; were striking.*
Passive forms: *is delayed; was written; were struck.*

[1] The interrogative use of *will* in the first person is never correct except in repetition. Expressions like, *Where will I find a time-table? What will we do for a leader?* are wrong. Say, *Where shall I find it? What shall we do?*

CIX. THE ANCIENT, OR SOLEMN, FORM.

Below are shown the forms of the verb *be*, in the solemn style, which differ from those in the common style.

Present Tense: Thou *art*
Past Tense: Thou *wast* or *wert*
Future Tense: Thou *shalt be* or *wilt be*

In all other verbs, the changes in the ancient style are as follows: —

With *thou* as the subject, the termination *t*, *st*, or *est*, is added to the common form of the verb.

Examples: Thou *hast*, thou *hadst*, thou *workest*, thou *workedst*.

When the subject is in the third person singular, the termination *eth* is added to the verb.

Examples: My Father *worketh*. God *loveth* a cheerful giver.

Has changes to *hath*. *Does* changes to *doth* if an auxiliary, otherwise to *doeth*. *Is* does not change.

Examples: Who *hath* sorrow? What *doth* the Lord require of thee?

In verb-phrases, the terminations given above are added to the auxiliaries, and not to the participles or infinitives with which the auxiliaries are combined.

Examples: Thou *hast* given; thou *hadst* gone; thou *mayst* go.

Exercise I.

Give the tense of each verb below; also the number and person of its subject.

1. Blessed is he whom thou chastenest.
2. Whom the Lord loveth he chasteneth.
3. The fig tree thou cursedst is dead.
4. Thou deliveredst unto me five talents.
5. Here am I, for thou calledst me.
6. Thou changest his countenance and sendest him away.

Exercise 2.

Change the following to the common style, but without changing the meaning.

1. All is dark where thou art not.
2. How kind an office hath been done!
3. Thou hearkenedst not to the Lord.
4. He that dwelleth in love, dwelleth in God.
5. I forgave thee because thou desiredst me.
6. He that loveth his brother abideth in the light.
7. I say to this man, "Go," and he goeth; and to another, "Come," and he cometh; and to my servant, "Do this," and he doeth it.
8. Charity suffereth long, and is kind; charity vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly.
9. Immortal Love,
   Thou madest life in man —
   Thou wilt not leave him in the dust.
10. Oh, what hadst thou to do with cruel Death,
    Who wast so full of life, or Death with thee,
    That thou shouldst die before thou hadst grown old!
11. All that thou canst call thine own
    Lies in thy *to-day*.

CX. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *HAVE*.

Primary Tenses.

Indicative Mode — Common Form.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I have	We have
You have	You have
He has	They have

Past Tense.

I had	We had
You had	You had
He had	They had

Future Tense.

I shall have	We shall have
You will have	You will have
He will have	They will have

In the preceding table we see the forms of *have* in three tenses of the indicative mode.

Besides the three primary tenses, there are three others called **perfect** tenses. Thus we have six tenses in all, — the present and present perfect, the past and past perfect, the future and future perfect.

By using the perfect participle with the present tense of *have*, we make the **present perfect**; as, *I have spoken.* By combining it with the past tense of *have*, we make the **past perfect**; as, *You had spoken.* By combining it with the future tense of *have*, we make the **future perfect**; as, *He will have spoken.*[1]

Present Perfect Tense (of *speak*).

Common Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I have spoken	We have spoken
You have spoken	You have spoken
He has spoken	They have spoken

CXI. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *MOVE*.

ACTIVE VOICE. — PRIMARY TENSES.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. — Pres., *move*; Past, *moved*; Perf. Part., *moved*.

Indicative Mode — Common Form.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I move	We move
You move	You move
He moves	They move

[1] The perfect tenses will receive special attention in Part III.

Past Tense.

I moved	We moved
You moved	You moved
He moved	They moved

Future Tense.

I shall move	We shall move
You will move	You will move
He will move	They will move

Exercise.

(*a*) Write the declarative and the interrogative conjugations of *look* in the present, past, and future tenses.

(*b*) What is the order of an interrogative sentence when an auxiliary is used? When no auxiliary is used?

(*c*) Complete the conjugation of the verb *move* in the passive voice, indicative mode, through the three following tenses. (See Lesson CIV., page 152.)

PASSIVE VOICE. — PRIMARY TENSES.

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I am moved	We are moved

Past Tense.

I was moved	—

Future Tense.

I shall be moved	—

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICES.

Imperative Mode.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Active.	Move, *or* move thou	Move, *or* move ye
Passive.	Be moved, *or* be thou moved	Be moved, *or* be ye moved

CXII. AGREEMENT.

You have learned in previous lessons that *am*, *is*, *was*, *has*, *hath*, and the *-s forms* of all verbs are singular; that is, when used as predicate verbs, they require singular subjects. The forms *are* and *were* are plural and must have plural subjects. The only exception to this rule is found in the subjunctive mode; here we have the expressions, *if I were*, *if he were*, etc.

Care must be taken to use these verbs correctly. A few simple rules may be of service.

Singular.

The following subjects of verbs or antecedents of pronouns are singular, and verbs and pronouns must have forms to correspond: —

(1) A collective noun in the singular number and denoting a group of objects as one thing.

Examples: Our school *was* very quiet.
The jury *is* discharged.

(2) Two or more singular nouns joined by *and*, but denoting only one person or thing.

Example: My friend and benefactor *is* here.

(3) A singular noun or pronoun modified by *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *many a*, or *no*.

Examples: Many a man *has* been defrauded.
Each one of the prisoners *pleads* guilty.
Every man, woman, and child *seems* joyous.

(4) Two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by *or*, *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*.

Example: Neither the child nor his teacher *was* present.

PLURAL.

The following subjects of verbs or antecedents of pronouns are plural: —

(1) A collective noun in the singular number when special reference is made to the individuals composing the collection.

Example: The committee *were* invited, and all wished to be present.

(2) Two or more singular subjects, joined by *and*, and denoting different persons or things.

Example: Your pen, ink, and paper *are* on the table.

CAUTION: Although *with* or *together with*, followed by an object, may make a seeming addition to a subject, the latter is not thus made compound.

Examples: The farmer, with his two sons, *has gone* to the field.
This, together with your statement, *convinces* me.

(3) A singular noun, which, by the use of two or more adjectives, is made to refer to more than one thing.

Example: Manual and physical training *are* now required.

(4) *Few*, *many*, and *several* are plural; *most*, *some*, *the rest*, etc., are plural or singular according to use.

Example: Few *are* now living who fought in the war of 1812.

Of two or more subjects connected by *or* or *nor* and differing in person or number, the one nearest the verb determines its form.

Examples: It is not decided whether you or I *am* to copy the minutes. Either I or you *are* to blame.

Expressions like these, however, are displeasing, and should be avoided. The following are preferable.

Examples: It is not decided whether the minutes *are* to be copied by you or by me. Either you *are* to blame or I *am*.

CXIII. AGREEMENT (*continued*).

When a phrase containing a plural noun follows a singular subject, care must be taken to use a singular verb.

Example: Not a word of his lessons *was* learned at home.

The subject of the verb must be in the **nominative case.**

The object of a transitive verb or a preposition must be in the **objective case.**

Under these rules, mistakes frequently occur in the use of those pronouns whose nominative and objective case-forms are unlike.

Examples: I walked as far as *he* (not him).
He and *I* (not him and me) have been coasting.

Whether *who* or *whom* is proper to introduce a given sentence or clause, must be determined by the office the pronoun is to fill, *i.e.* whether subject or object.

Examples: Father spoke to the person *who* he supposed had taken the message. *Whom* do you think I met?

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences.

1. She is a mother whom I call both gentle and firm.
2. Guess who won the prize.
3. The height of the cliffs exceeds five hundred feet.
4. He is one of the best men that I ever knew.
5. Tell me whom you saw.
6. Not a dollar of his millions was given to the poor.
7. I addressed the man whom I took to be the guard.
8. Here was one who, I thought, must be familiar with the ways of the Court.
9. Judge Ireson dealt leniently with the prisoner, whose youth gained the pity of the people.
10. Whom do you think I saw in Washington?

CXIV. WORD BUILDING.

A **prefix** is a letter or letters joined to the beginning of a word to modify its meaning.

A **suffix** is a letter or letters joined to the end of a word to modify its meaning.

A **root word** is a word from which other words are formed.

Primitives, Derivatives, Compounds.

Most English words in common use are made directly from Anglo-Saxon words by changes in spelling: as, *father* from *faeder*: *heaven* from *heofon*: *forgive* from *forgyf*.

The language has been enriched, however, from many different sources. Many words have been adopted from other languages without change: as, *table*, *dame*, *prairie*, *humble*, from the French, — *medium*, *ratio*, *plus*, *minus*, *factor*, from the Latin, — *alto*, *portico*, from the Italian.

Other English words are made from parts of foreign words, these parts being taken as roots from which the English word is made by means of prefixes or suffixes, or both. Thus, from *scribere* (Latin), meaning *to write*, we derive *transcribe*, *inscribe*, *circumscribe*, by means of the prefixes *trans*, *in*, and *circum*.

The foreign word from which English words are made is frequently called the root, though, in fact, the real root is only a part of the foreign word.

The real foreign root is nearly always a monosyllable, but often it is so hidden that it would be useless for any but a classical scholar to try to find it. The foreign word itself, therefore, from which the English words are derived, may be called a root word.

Many English words are derived from simpler English words by means of prefixes and suffixes; as, *un-time-ly*.

Here *time* may be considered the root of *untimely*. *Un* is the prefix, and *ly* the suffix.

Prefixes are frequently modified in form by the first letter of the root, so that the sound will be more pleasing to the ear.

Example: *ad* takes the forms *a, ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at;* that is, the prefix *ad* is modified either by dropping the *d* or by changing it into the first letter of the root to which it is prefixed; as, *af-fix, ap-pend, al-low, as-sist,* etc.

A word made from a root by means of a prefix or a suffix, or both, is called a **derivative**. The root itself is sometimes called a **primitive**.

New words are also made by combining two or more simple words: as, *silversmith, inkstand, mother-in-law, nevertheless.* Such words are called **compound words.** (See Lesson LX., page 81.)

A careful examination of the writings of most English authors will show that in every hundred words, about sixty are Anglo-Saxon, thirty Latin, and five Greek. In the Bible and in Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, we find that over ninety words out of a hundred are Anglo-Saxon.

The following extract from the Bible will be of interest. The words *not* in Italics are Anglo-Saxon.

"In the beginning God *created* the heaven and the earth. And the earth was without *form* and *void*: and darkness was upon the *face* of the deep. And the *Spirit* of God *moved* upon the *face* of the waters. And God said, Let there be light: and there was light. And God saw the light, that it was good: and God *divided* the light from the darkness."

In this extract, of the seven words that are not Anglo-Saxon, two came directly from the Latin, and five from the Latin through the French.

CXV. DERIVATIVES.

Three things are of importance in connection with the study of a word: —

(1) its origin; (2) its use: (3) its spelling.

a = *in, on.*

Abed = *in bed; aground* = *on ground.*

On page 276 you will find the meaning of the prefixes, *a, mis, out, un, with.*

With the aid of your dictionary, find two words that will illustrate each of the prefixes above, and use the words in sentences.

CXVI. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

er, ard = *one who.*

Printer = *one who prints; drunkard* = *one who drinks.*

On page 278 you will find the meaning of the suffixes *ard, dom, en, er, ery, ish, kin.*

Find two words that will illustrate the meaning of each of the suffixes above.

CXVII. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

duc, duct = *lead.*

Conductor = *one who leads; produce* = *to lead forth.*

On page 280 you will find the meaning of the following roots: *am, amat; aud, audit; duc, duct.*

Find two or more words that will illustrate the meaning of each root.

CXVIII. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

A + shore = on shore; pain + ful = full of pain.

Join a prefix or a suffix to each of the following words, and give the meaning of the derivative.

pun	Arab	print	circle	auction
war	cash	heart	danger	trouble
pain	favor	clerk	plague	quarrel
hill	shore	cigar	pilgrim	comfort
king	honor	arctic	annual	apprentice
lamb	rogue	martyr	animal	confection

CXIX. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Ignoble = not noble; ig = not.

Show the meaning of the prefixes in the following derivatives.

afoot	empower	underscore	intermingle
affix	encamp	discontinue	interrupt
annex	immerse	disbelief	opponent
bedeck	preconcerted	dependent	pervade
becloud	misconduct	forerunner	anteroom
connect	outstrip	ignoble	counteract
ennoble	oversleep	immodest	countermand

CXX. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Fertilize = to make fertile; ize = to make.

Show the meaning of the suffixes in the following.

modernize	womanly	politeness	hennery
tranquilize	flowery	sleeplessness	piggery
civilize	vulgarity	laboratory	plantlet
vocalist	equality	observatory	rivulet
specialist	fertility	assignee	brazen
matronly	gentleness	mortgagee	wooden

CXXI. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Transcribe is a derivative. The root word is *scribo*, meaning *I write*. The prefix is *trans*, meaning *over*. *Transcribe* means, *to write over;* and *transcription* means, *something written over.*

(1) Point out the root of each derivative and give its meaning. (2) Point out the prefix or suffix and give its meaning. (3) Give the meaning of the word.

circumscribe	inscribe	describe	colloquy
superscribe	proscribe	manuscript	collide
prescribe	subscribe	postscript	collision

CXXII. SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. No might nor greatness in mortality
Can censure 'scape; back-wounding calumny
The whitest virtue strikes.

2. The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
Lets in new light through chinks that time has made.

3. The old house by the lindens
Stood silent in the shade,
And on the graveled pathway
The light and shadow played.

4. Hope is the capital on which the world does business.

5. Hope is the bright day-star that leads man from the cradle to the grave.

6. I have known eminent men who had not the power to state a fact; the lenses by which they saw their facts were not adjusted properly.

7. Great victories are for those only who entertain great hopes.

8. A handful of red sand, from the hot clime
Of Arab deserts brought,
Within this glass becomes the spy of Time,
The minister of Thought.

9. The angel showed the names of those whom love of God had blest.
10. Every gift of noble origin is breathed upon by Hope's perpetual breath.
11. Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice.

12.
Our cradle is the starting place;
Life is the running of the race;
We reach the goal
When, in the mansions of the blest,
Death leaves to its eternal rest
The weary soul.

13. Reading is often mere idling.
14. His was a faith that could not fail.
15. This genus of plants has caused some discussion among botanists.
16. He seldom took two shots at a deer.
17. The change of fashion is the tax that the industry of the poor levies on the vanity of the rich.
18. The boy becomes a man.
19. Boyish behavior does not become a man.
20. Barges with carved and gilded prows and silken awnings fringed and tasseled richly, all laden with revelry, are gliding up and down the river.

21.
And fast through the midnight, dark and drear,
Through the whistling sleet and snow,
Like a sheeted ghost, the vessel swept
Towards the reef of Norman's woe.

And ever, the fitful gusts between,
A sound came from the land;
It was the sound of the trampling surf
On the rocks and the hard sea sand.

22. The one event which never loses its romance is the encounter with superior persons on terms allowing the happiest intercourse.

23.
Childhood is the bough where slumbered
Birds and blossoms many-numbered;
Age, that bough with snows encumbered.

24. There in the tranquil evenings of summer, when brightly the sunset
Lighted the village street, and gilded the vanes on the chimneys,
Matrons and maidens sat in snow-white caps and in kirtles
Scarlet and blue and green, with distaffs spinning the golden
Flax for the gossiping looms, whose noisy shuttles within doors
Mingled their sound with the whir of the wheels and the songs of the maidens.

25. Anon from the belfry
Softly the Angelus sounded, and over the roofs of the village
Columns of pale blue smoke, like clouds of incense ascending,
Rose from a hundred hearths, the homes of peace and contentment.
Thus dwelt together in love these simple Acadian farmers.

26. Neither locks had they to their doors, nor bars to their windows:
But their dwellings were open as day and the hearts of their owners;
There the richest were poor, and the poorest lived in abundance.

27. She is ever on the watch (watchful).

28. I've been ever in fear (fearful) to kindle your dislike.

29. The current was passing rapidly, but with a placidity that reminded me of the old proverb, "Still waters run deep."

30. Sparkling like a diamond
Beams the day-star in the skies:
Nature, loosed from winter's bond,
Smiles as one in sweet surprise;
Hawthorns wear their wedding white,
Pastures show their greenest guise,—
Earth is laughing with delight.

31. I'll put a girdle round about the earth
In forty minutes.

32. How far that little candle throws its beams:
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.

33. He that wants money, means, and content is without three good friends.

34. To cherish joyously the largest hope is to see this world in its radiance.

35. Bashfulness and apathy are a tough husk, in which a delicate organization is protected from premature ripening.
36. In circles where he was well known, the eldest of the brothers had gained the name of a hanger-on.
37. 'Tis the philosophy of desperate want to face one grief at once.
38. He lives in fame that died in virtue's cause.
39. When Sumter is fired at, or bondage grasps at new soil, the most stupid feel the shock and start to their feet.
40. In the gallery of portraits of great men at Versailles, the most striking is that of Daniel Webster.
41. There are names that have in them all the sweetness of music; and when they are spoken they bring peace and comfort and beautiful memories.
42. Some branches of knowledge may be safely left to such persons as can devote themselves to special pursuits.
43. They are never alone that are accompanied with noble thoughts.
44. Act always so that the immediate motive of thy will may become a universal rule for all intelligent beings.
45.

The roses are a regal troop,
And modest folk the daisies;
But, Bluebells of New England,
To you I give my praises, —

To you, fair phantoms of the sun,
Whom merry Spring discovers,
With bluebirds for your laureates
And honeybees for lovers.

The south wind breathes, and, lo! you throng
This rugged land of ours:
I think the pale-blue clouds of May
Drop down, and turn to flowers!

All night your eyes are closed in sleep,
Kept fresh for day's adorning.
Such simple faith as yours can see
God's coming in the morning.

You lead me, by your holiness,
To pleasant ways of duty;
You set my thoughts to melody,
You fill me with your beauty.

In Part I. we studied the construction of the sentence. We learned that every sentence has a subject and a predicate, and that it may have modifying words, phrases, or clauses. We also learned that the words of which all sentences are made, may be divided, according to their use, into eight classes, or parts of speech, each class containing all the words that are used in the same general way.

The names of the eight classes are as follows: Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

In Part I. we studied the parts of speech with special reference to their uses in sentences, giving very little attention to the subdivisions of the parts of speech, or to the subject of inflection.

In Part II. we studied the subdivisions of the parts of speech with considerable care, and directed special attention to inflections, — what they are, and what they mean.

In Part III. we shall study further the parts of speech, and especially such of their subdivisions as have received, in Parts I. and II., but little attention because of the difficulties connected with them.

In order to prepare for this work, we shall first review the main features of what has already been done.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Part III.

CXXIII. THE SENTENCE.

A group of words expressing a complete thought is a sentence; but the same group of words that at one time forms a complete sentence may at another time form only part of a sentence.

The statement, *The child entered the room*, may express a complete thought, and in that case the written expression would be followed by a period. But one might say, *The child entered the room reluctantly*, or *with his classmate*, or *just as the clock struck nine*. In these cases, *The child entered the room* is only a part of a longer sentence, all of which is needed to express the more comprehensive thought.

A written sentence is followed by a period (.), an interrogation mark (?), or an exclamation point (!).

Exercise I.

Birds are singing.

The happy birds in field and wood are singing their welcome to the dawn.

The, *happy*, and *in field and wood*, are adjective modifiers of *birds*; *welcome* is the object of the verb *are singing*, and is modified by the pronominal adjective *their*; *to the dawn* is an adverbial modifier of *are singing*, telling to what they are singing.

(*a*) Rewrite each of the following sentences so that it will express a fuller or more comprehensive thought.

(*b*) Point out each modifying word, phrase, or clause that you have added, and tell what, and in what way, it modifies.

1. Birds are singing.
2. Stars shine.
3. Music is heard.
4. Rain fell.
5. Speed was checked.
6. The roof protects.
7. Kindness had been shown.
8. The cathedral will be visited.
9. Sheep scamper.
10. The forces retired.
11. Bells are ringing.
12. Summer is approaching.

NOTE TO THE TEACHER. — In such examples as the foregoing, pupils may be required to add or to reject one modifying word, phrase, or clause, and then to show the effect upon the sentence, before making any further change.

Examples: —

Birds are singing. The happy birds are singing. (*Happy* describes the birds, and *the* points out *happy birds.*)

The happy birds in field and wood are singing. (The phrase, *in field and wood*, tells where the birds are.)

Exercise 2.

In the morning, the five boys from Camp Douglas rowed the boat rapidly up the lake.

The five boys from Camp Douglas rowed the boat rapidly up the lake.

The five boys from Camp Douglas rowed the boat rapidly.

The five boys from Camp Douglas rowed the boat.

The five boys rowed the boat.

The boys rowed the boat.

(*a*) In the same manner rewrite the following sentences so that the thoughts expressed will be more simple.

(*b*) Tell, in each instance, what kind of modifying word, phrase, or clause you have rejected.

1. They exchanged a few earnest words before parting.
2. Her cousin Julia often came from the parsonage to brighten the sick-room.
3. Our men soon became weary of pulling against the strong current.
4. President Bartlett, of Dartmouth College, became tutor in that institution at twenty.
5. After so long an absence, at last we met again.
6. The sun, in his cloudless journey, had melted away the thin covering of snow from every southern slope.
7. After turning from the main road up a narrow lane, thickly shaded with forest trees, we came in sight of the cottage.

CXXIV. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

A sentence containing but one statement or question is called a **simple sentence.**

Examples: The night was cold. Was the night cold?

Simple sentences may frequently be expanded to considerable length by the addition of modifiers either to the subject, or to the predicate, or to both.

Example: The night of December 25, 1890, was extremely cold.

A sentence remains simple so long as it contains but one proposition. (See page 17.)

Two or more independent propositions joined together by one or more conjunctions form a **compound sentence.**

Example: The way was long and the wind was cold.

In some compound sentences the conjunction is understood, but not expressed.

Example: The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

A sentence containing one independent proposition and one or more dependent propositions, or clauses, is called a **complex sentence.**

Example: She walked in the meadow *when the grass was wet with dew.* (See page 73.)

One or more of the members of a compound sentence may be complex. Such sentences are called **compound-complex.**

Example: He *that hath pity upon the poor* lendeth unto the Lord, and *that which he hath given* will he pay him again.

Exercise.

(*a*) Classify the following sentences as simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex.

(*b*) Separate each compound sentence into simple sentences, and point out the conjunction or conjunctions connecting the parts (members).

(*c*) Point out the clauses. Tell what they modify, and how.

1. Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers
2. Virtue is clad in flesh and blood.
3. He that wrestles with us strengthens our nerves and sharpens our skill.
4. 'Tis winter now, but spring will blossom soon,
   And flowers will lean to the embracing air.
5. 'Tis winter, yet there is no sound, along the air,
   Of winds upon their battle-ground, but gently there
   The snow is falling.
6. A voice went forth throughout the land,
   And an answering voice replied.
7. The mouse that hath but one hole is quickly taken.
8. God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb.
9. I am dreaming of the firelight, and the rain is slowly falling.

10. All day she moveth to and fro, and the murmured melody of pleasant thoughts springs to her lips.

11. Descending snows the earth o'erspread,
Keen blows the northern blast;
Condensing clouds scowl overhead,
The tempest gathers fast.

12. Speak gently! 'tis a little thing
Dropped in the heart's deep well;
The good, the joy, that it may bring,
Eternity shall tell.

13. He loved to tell long stories about the dark old warriors whose portraits looked grimly down from the walls.

CXXV. ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A simple sentence has but one subject and one predicate, but the subject, or predicate, or both, may be **compound**, and may be modified either by words or by phrases.

Examples: —

The girls recited their lessons. (Both subject and predicate, simple.)

The girls and boys recited their lessons. (Subject, compound; predicate, simple.)

The girls study and recite their lessons. (Subject, simple; predicate, compound.)

The girls and boys study and recite their lessons. (Both subject and predicate, compound.)

Exercise I.

(*a*) In the following simple sentences, point out the subjects and predicates, and tell whether they are simple or compound.

(*b*) Point out the simple subject and the simple predicate in each sentence.

(*c*) Point out the modifying words and phrases.

1. His neighbors and friends have been very kind to him.
2. The officer plans skillfully and executes rapidly.
3. This was once a king, and now is clay.
4. With this visit to the scene, return all its pleasures and its pains.
5. Music can noble hints impart, and manage all the man.
6. Their sins and their iniquities will I remember no more.
7. Snow and hail, fire and vapor, fulfill His word.
8. Snowstorms keep a man's body indoors, but bring his mind out.
9. Moses and Elias came and talked with Jesus.
10. The purple grape and ripened grain bring rejoicing.
11. Suddenly the sound of the shrill warwhoop broke the stillness of the night.
12. A statesman of great renown had placed himself at the head of his countrymen, and across the path of tyranny.
13. Can flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of death?

Exercise 2.

Analyze the following compound sentences.

1. The singing of the great wood-fires is yet in our ears, and the blowing of the gusty wind at the casement will be long remembered.
2. Italy bought the Bonaparte papers, and they were deposited in the Royal Library of Florence.
3. In fifteen years this trade had made the man rich, but it should have led him to prison.
4. Each of us sees with his own eyes, and no two pair of eyes are alike.
5. On the lawn, great shrubs of tropic bloom threw a fragrance on the moonlit air, and one could hear in the distance the odd, oriental cries of the women in their boats.

As a compound sentence is merely a combination of simple sentences or complex sentences, the analysis of a compound sentence requires no special attention. Each independent proposition forming a part of the compound sentence must be analyzed as a simple sentence.

CXXVI. ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

Model No. 1 (Clausal, Phrasal, and Verbal).

We can not perceive that the study of grammar makes even the smallest difference in the speech of people who have always lived in good society.

(1) This is a complex, declarative sentence, — complex because it contains one or more clauses, and declarative because it asserts a fact.

(2) The main proposition is, *We can perceive*, in which the simple predicate is modified by the adverb *not*.

(3) This sentence contains two clauses: *that the study . . . society*, and *who have . . . society*. The first is a complex noun clause used as the object of the verb *can perceive;* the second is an adjective clause modifying the noun *people*.

The first clause tells what is perceived, and is connected with the verb by the conjunction *that;* the second clause tells the kind of people referred to, and is connected with the noun *people* by the conjunctive pronoun *who*.

(4) The phrases in this sentence are — *of grammar*, adjective, modifying the noun *study* by telling what study; — *in the speech*, adjective, modifying the noun *difference*, telling in what the difference consists; — *of people*, adjective, modifying the noun *speech*, telling what speech; — and *in good society*, adverbial, modifying the verb *have lived*, by telling where the people lived.

(5) *Study* is a noun used as the subject of the verb *makes*.

Smallest is an adjective modifying the noun *difference*.

Even is an adverb, modifying the adjective *smallest*.

Difference is a noun, object of the verb *makes*.

Always is an adverb of time modifying the verb *have lived.*

Good is an adjective modifying the noun *society.*

MODEL NO. 2 (CLAUSAL AND PHRASAL).

We can not perceive that the study of grammar makes even the smallest difference in the speech of people who have always lived in good society.

(1) This is a complex, declarative sentence.

(2) The main proposition is, *We can perceive.*

(3)

CLAUSES.	WHAT THEY MODIFY.	KINDS.
that the study . . . society	*can perceive*	*noun*
who have . . . society	*people*	*adjective*

(4)

PHRASES.	WHAT THEY MODIFY.	KINDS.
of grammar	*study*	*adjective*
in the speech	*difference*	*adjective*
of people	*speech*	*adjective*
in good society	*have lived*	*adverbial*

Exercise I.

Analyze the following sentences according to model No. 1.

1. As I did not know the exact route, I steered by the lay of the land.
2. Does he fear that he will lose his friend?
3. Arts ever followed where Rome's eagles flew.
4. We gladly welcome April showers
   Because they promise gifts of flowers.
5. Those who merit praise can bear reproof.
6. He knows that the world can get on without him.
7. That you have wronged me doth appear in this.
8. How often have hearts beat in terror
   Over evils that never occurred.

Exercise 2.

Analyze the following sentences according to model No. 2.

1. Those persons from whom came the loudest complaint were the first offenders.
2. He that shuns the hives because the bees have stings, is not worthy of the honeycomb.
3. The crime of one age has more than once become the glory of the ages which followed.
4. Nature is a kind of enchanted castle in which beauty is imprisoned, and her doors are opened only to him who loves that which is within.
5. Providence has taken care that no part of nature shall be left unexamined and unreported.
6. Bend yourself to the task of showing how much you can do.
7. Good writers are distinguished from bad ones by the superior skill which they exhibit in the use of small words.
8. Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly.
9. Conversation is an art in which a man has all mankind for competitors.
10. Color blindness, which may mistake drab for scarlet, is better than total blindness, which sees no distinction of color at all.
11. Courtesy is often sooner found in lowly sheds with smoky rafters than in tapestry halls and courts of princes, where it first was named.
12. Knowledge that terminates in curiosity and speculation is inferior to that which is useful.
13. Gold, like the sun, which melts wax and hardens clay, expands great souls and contracts bad hearts.

Note to the Teacher. — Either of the foregoing models may be used in the analysis of complex sentences. Model No. 1 should be used until the pupils understand clearly the relations which the parts of a sentence bear to each other. With advanced pupils, model No. 2 is sufficiently full.

After a sentence has been analyzed, a few important words may be parsed. (See Lesson LXIII., page 86.)

CXXVII. REVIEW OF NOUNS.

(Review pages 26–30 and 93–113.)

Exercise 1.

(*a*) Define, and give an example of, a common noun: a proper noun; a collective noun.

(*b*) How are the plurals of nouns regularly formed? Give examples to illustrate.

(*c*) What is the rule for forming the plurals of nouns ending in *y*? Illustrate.

(*d*) What have you learned of nouns whose plurals end in *en*? Of nouns like *foot, mouse, man*?

(*e*) What feminine terminations are still used in English? Illustrate. How can you account for the spelling of *songstress*? (See page 102, note.)

(*f*) What nouns form their possessive case by the addition of an apostrophe and *s*? What nouns by an apostrophe alone? Give examples.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) In the following sentences point out the nouns that are or may be inflected to express number: gender: case.

(*b*) Point out the personal pronouns, and give the person, gender, number, and case of each.

1. The Swedes, as well as the Swiss, are a patriotic people.
2. The marchioness was celebrated for her wit and beauty.
3. Our neighbors' ducks and geese are swimming on the miller's pond.
4. The cargoes of the sailing craft on these northern waters consist chiefly of lumber, ores, wheat, oats, and potatoes.
5. The Empress's excellences are shown in this, that no one's endeavors go farther than hers for others' good.
6. We do well to remember what George Eliot tells us in her *Adam Bede*: "The secret of our emotions never lies in the bare object, but in its subtle relation to our own past."

CXXVIII. ABSTRACT NOUNS.

Some common nouns are names of **qualities** of objects; as, *color*, *beauty*, *ugliness*.

Other common nouns are names of **conditions** of objects; as, *weakness*, *weariness*, *happiness*.

All such nouns are names of qualities, conditions, and relations that have no real existence separate from objects that can be seen or touched. Many of them are names of things that can only be thought about. Yet we speak of them as if they were real objects like trees, stones, or fruit. For instance, we say, *His* strength *is great*. *The* flavor *is very pleasant*. *His* weight *is enormous*, etc.

Such names are called **abstract nouns**, because we consider the qualities, conditions, etc., apart from the things to which they belong.

Exercise 1.

Point out the nouns in the following sentences, and tell which are abstract, and why.

1. Give me neither poverty nor riches.
2. Honor is the subject of my story.
3. The phonograph was the invention of a genius.
4. Diligence wins the prize.
5. The goodness of God leadeth to repentance.
6. His absence was caused by an accident.
7. Perfect love casteth out fear.

Exercise 2.

Analyze the following sentences.

1. Most men are more worn by anxiety than by labor.
2. Growth and decay are seen on every side.
3. Faithfulness in service is a proof of noble character.
4. Of two evils the less is always to be chosen.

CXXIX. INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

In Part II. we learned all that there is of inflection in nouns. These inflections are shown in the following table:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	FEMININE.	POSS. SING.	POSS. PLU.
boy	boys	——	boy's	boys'
church	churches	——	church's	
turkey	turkeys	——	turkey's	turkeys'
fly	flies	——	fly's	flies'
ox	oxen	——	ox's	oxen's
man	men	woman	man's woman's	men's women's
actor	actors	actress	actor's actress's	actors' actresses'
administrator	administrators	administratrix	administrator's	administrators'
director	directors	directress	director's	directors'

Point out the inflection in each noun in the foregoing table, and tell what the inflection indicates.

Names of inanimate objects, when not personified, seldom take the possessive form.

Example: The color *of* the *grass:* not, The *grass's* color.

Exercise.

Place in one column the masculine nouns found below; then make a table showing their inflections, as above.

Lord	sir	hero	ram	earl	bullock
male	beau	prince	duke	hart	Francis
drake	colt	swain	baron	king	Charles
infant	czar	tiger	sloven	friar	sultan
Cornelius	nephew	bachelor	Mr.	monsieur	governor
emperor	bridegroom	widower	master	gander	shepherd

CXXX. ADJECTIVES.

(Review Lessons LXXXV.–LXXXVII., pages 119–123.)

Exercise 1.

This is a very valuable horse.

(*a*) Rewrite the above sentence, using instead of the adjective *valuable* an equivalent adjective phrase.

(*b*) Rewrite the sentence, using an equivalent adjective clause.

(*c*) Write the comparison of the following adjectives:

Valuable, beautiful, ill, many, heavy, young.

(*d*) What is meant by *comparison?* What adjectives can not be compared?

(*e*) Write in words 78, 325, 1062, 1532, and 21,875.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Point out each adjective in the following extract, and tell whether it expresses quality, number, or place.

(*b*) Classify the adjectives as descriptive or definitive, and give reasons for the classification.

(*c*) Which of the definitive adjectives are numerals? Tell whether the numerals are cardinal or ordinal.

In his fourth year, Sir Walter Scott was sent to Bath, for the sake of its mineral waters. There he attended a dame's school, and received his first lessons in reading. He next made some advance at a private school kept by a Mr. Leechman, in a small building, now decayed, and occupied by a hard-working blacksmith.

It is almost certain that attendance at his first school in Edinburgh was rendered irregular by his delicate health. He entered Fraser's High School in the third year; that is, at the middle stage of the ordinary curriculum. He was eight years of age — an uncommonly early period for a boy to enter the third year of his classical course.

CXXXI. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

(Review Lesson XVIII.–XXII., pages 32–37.)

Pronouns enable us to avoid the repetition of nouns. In fact, a few pronouns will represent all the nouns in the language. The pronoun *he* will represent any masculine noun in the singular number; *she*, any feminine noun in the singular number; *they*, any noun in the plural number, whether masculine or feminine, etc.

The pronoun *I* denotes the speaker, and the pronoun *we* includes the speaker and one or more others for whom he speaks. *You* denotes the person or persons addressed, and may refer to one or more than one.

In the possessive case there are two forms of some of the personal pronouns; as, *my* and *mine*, *your* and *yours*, *their* and *theirs*, etc. The first form is used as an adjective, with a noun.

Examples: This is *your* book. *Their* advice was not taken.

The second form is rarely used with a noun, though such expressions as *Mine eyes have seen the glory*, and *Mine hour is not yet come*, are frequently met with in poetry and in the Bible. (See page 112.)

The possessive forms *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *his*, *hers*, *theirs*, express ownership and at the same time they have the construction of nouns in the nominative or objective case.

Examples: John has *my book* = John has *mine*.
Your book is on the table = *Yours* is on the table.

Ours, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs*, are never followed by nouns; but each of these words fills the office of a pronoun in the possessive case and of a noun in the nominative or objective.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Per.	myself	ourselves
Second Per.	thyself yourself	yourselves
Third Per.	himself herself itself	themselves

These forms are used in the nominative and objective cases, but not in the possessive.

Examples: Who would be free, *himself* must strike the blow.
Our remedies oft in *ourselves* do lie.

Exercise 1.

State in what way — whether as subject, object, or complement — the nouns represented by the following possessives are used.

1. I took theirs.
2. Mine are coming.
3. He spoke of yours.
4. The victory was his.
5. Yours are better than mine.
6. Theirs is the glory.
7. You take mine; I will take yours.
8. Hers is a sweet voice.
9. Thine is the kingdom.
10. Ours are later than theirs are.
11. Against his, no counsel shall prevail.
12. Mine be a cot beside the hill.

Exercise 2.

Fill each blank in the following exercise with an appropriate personal or compound personal pronoun, give its case, and tell why that case is required.

1. —— and —— sang a duet.
2. Wait for James and ——.
3. I did the work ——.
4. It was —— that gave John and —— the alarm.
5. They will elect Lucy or ——.

6. It was either —— or William.
7. I saw the proprietor ——.
8. Neither —— nor May can come.
9. The chorister expects Fred or —— to sing the solo.
10. You —— heard it.
11. He prides —— on his skill.
12. He keeps an eye on —— and ——.
13. Each time it has been —— or —— that won.
14. The teacher praised my brother John and ——.

CXXXII. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

(Review Lesson LV., page 75.)

The words *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that* are used as conjunctive pronouns, as we learned in Part I.

The word *as* also is used as a conjunctive pronoun after the words *such*, *many*, and *same*.

He received gratefully such help as *was offered.*

In this sentence, *as* is a conjunctive pronoun, the subject of *was offered*. Its antecedent is the noun *help*.

No conjunctive pronoun except *who* is inflected, and *who* is inflected for case only. The following are the forms of *who*: —

NOMINATIVE	POSSESSIVE	OBJECTIVE
who	*whose*	*whom*

Who is used in speaking of persons, and of objects personified.

Examples: The workman *who* was injured has fully recovered.
Now a faint tick was heard below, from the Pendulum, *who* thus spoke.

Which is used in speaking of lower animals or of things.

Example: He had wounded a beautiful deer, *which* lay panting at our feet.

Which may represent a collection of persons, when no special reference is made to the persons composing the collection.

Example: The sixth regiment, *which* suffered greatly from lack of food and clothing, etc.

Which may also be used to refer to a statement, or to a mere name or character.

Examples: You call me chief, *which* is proof of my valor.
The town was called Plymouth, *which* was the name of the place in England whence they came.

That may be used in speaking of either persons or things, and must be used when the antecedent refers both to persons and to things.

Examples: The merchant *that* failed has resumed business.
The horse and rider *that* left the village, etc.

The conjunctive pronoun *that* is preferred to *who* or *which* in the following cases: —

(1) When the antecedent includes both persons and things.

Example: The ship and passengers *that* were swallowed by the sea.

(2) Usually after an adjective in the superlative degree.

Example: He was the finest scholar of all *that* attended the school.

By many writers, *that* is also preferred to *which* when introducing a restrictive clause, that is, a clause defining the modified word.

Example: Philadelphia is the city *that* was founded by William Penn.

But if the antecedent is preceded by the adjective *that*, the conjunctive pronoun *that* should not be used.

Example: That man *who* gave you the ticket; not, That man *that* gave you the ticket.

That, as a conjunctive pronoun, never follows a preposition, but it may be the object of a preposition following it.

Example: He holds the position that I applied for (*better*, the position *for which* I applied).

Because *which* and *that* have no possessive forms, *whose* is sometimes used to refer to things as well as to persons.

Example: He has written a sentence *whose* meaning is obscure.

CXXXIII. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS (*concluded*).

Exercise.

(*a*) In the following sentences point out the clauses, tell what kind they are, and what they modify.

(*b*) Name the conjunctive pronouns, tell why they are pronouns, and why conjunctive.

(*c*) Give the antecedents of the conjunctive pronouns, and the part of speech to which each belongs.

1. We love those who aid us in gratifying our desires.
2. A man who is devoid of gratitude can not be a good man.
3. Wisdom is the habit by which we select right means for right ends.
4. Ignorance and error may arise from our want of information that we have no means of obtaining.
5. All that he does is to complain of those who care for him.
6. There stood by me this night the angel of God, whose I am, and whom I serve.
7. The shackles ne'er again shall bind
   The arm which now is free.
8. That plea was one in which Mr. Lincoln made an appeal that quite surpassed his usual efforts.
9. In all communities there are men who are believed to be honest, yet whose word is never taken as authority.
10. Never leave that till to-morrow which you can do to-day.
11. We always like those who admire us; we do not always like those whom we admire.

CXXXIV. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS (*continued*).

Every pronoun represents an antecedent (either expressed or understood), and the number and person of the pronoun are the same as the number and person of its antecedent. Hence,

A conjunctive pronoun in the nominative case must be followed by the same form of the verb that would properly follow its antecedent.

Examples: I (who) am your friend. He (who) is my friend. They (who) are my friends.

Exercise.

(*a*) From the parentheses below, choose the proper word, and give the reason for your choice.

(*b*) Give the construction of each noun and pronoun.

1. He speaks in words that (burn, burns).
2. The horse that you are driving was one of the finest that (was, were) offered at the sale.
3. Mr. S. is one of those restless men that (are, is) always seeking a new home.
4. Riches that (is, are) ill-gotten will be seldom enjoyed.
5. He was the father of all such as (play, plays) on the harp and organ.
6. Such zeal as his father displays in business, Harry shows in study.
7. He bought such land as I recommended.
8. Many people live in houses that do not fit them.
9. We value lightly that which costs us nothing.
10. The fireplace is a window through which we look out upon other scenes.
11. My pulses, therefore, beat again
    For other friends that once I met;
    Nor can it suit me to forget
    The mighty hopes that make us men.
12. He who neglects the present moment throws away all he has.

CXXXV. PERSONAL AND CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS CONTRASTED.

Personal[1] **pronouns** are so called because they show by their form of what grammatical person they are.

Conjunctive pronouns are so called because they partake of the nature of conjunctions and of pronouns. They are sometimes called **relative pronouns**, because they relate to an antecedent; but, as personal pronouns also relate to antecedents, the name *conjunctive* is more distinctive.

The person and number of a personal pronoun are always shown by its form. The pronoun *I* is always in the first person, singular: *thou* is in the second person, singular; *he*, *she*, and *it* are in the third person, singular, etc. *You* is always plural, though in common speech it has taken the place of *thou*.

A verb whose subject is a personal pronoun agrees with that pronoun in person and number.

Unlike the personal pronoun, the person and number of a conjunctive pronoun can be determined only by reference to its antecedent. *Who*, for example, may refer to the speaker, to the person addressed, or to the one spoken of. It may also refer to one person or to more than one.

Examples: *I who* am here. *You who* are here.
He who is here. *They who* are here.

A verb whose subject is a conjunctive pronoun agrees with the antecedent in person and number.

[1] The term *personal* as applied to pronouns is an unfortunate one, inasmuch as pupils are quite likely to assume that certain pronouns are called *personal* because they represent the names of persons. Care should be taken to distinguish between the word *person*, meaning a living human being, and the term *grammatical person*.

Exercise.

Point out the pronouns in the following sentences, tell whether they are personal or conjunctive, and why; also point out their antecedents.

1. If the prisoner saw that her visitor bore her no ill-will for the deed she had done him, she might open her heart to him.
2. The parson is not one of those that think they can comfort you with chattering, as if folks who stand by and look on know a deal better what the trouble is than those who have to bear it.
3. It is sublime — that sudden pause of a great multitude, which tells that one soul moves in them all.
4. No story is the same to us after a lapse of time; or rather, we who read it are no longer the same interpreters; and our traveler this morning brought with him new thoughts through that gray country — thoughts which gave an altered significance to its story of the past.
5. Thy hand hath made our Nation free;
   To die for her is serving Thee.

CXXXVI. COMPOUND CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

By annexing *ever* or *soever* to the conjunctive pronouns *who*, *whose*, *which*, and *what*, we form the **compound conjunctive pronouns** *whoever*, *whichever*, and *whatever;* also *whosoever*, *whosesoever*, *whatsoever*, and *whichsoever*.

A compound conjunctive pronoun performs the office of a conjunctive pronoun, and also that of its antecedent.

Whoever studies will learn.

Whoever studies is the subject of *will learn*. But the sentence is equivalent to

He who studies will learn,

in which *he* is the antecedent of *who* and the subject of *will learn*. *Who* is the subject of the verb *studies*.

A compound conjunctive pronoun may be equivalent to two simple pronouns, each of which is used as an object.

He must take whatever he likes.

In this sentence, *whatever he likes* is the object of *must take*. Substituting *that which* for *whatever*, *that* is the object of *must take*, and *which* the object of *likes*.

He must take whatever seems best.

Here *whatever seems best* is the object of *must take*. Substituting *that which* for *whatever*, *that* is the object of *must take*, and *which* the subject of the verb *seems*.

In a sentence, the conjunctive pronoun *what* is equivalent to *that which*.

I do not know what you want = I do not know that which you want.

In the former sentence, *what you want* is the object of *know*, and *what* is the object of *want*: in the latter, *that* is the object of *know*, and *which* is the object of *want*.

The antecedent of *what* or of *whatever* is never expressed, these pronouns representing, in their compound nature, both the antecedent and the pronoun.

In the sentence, *What man has done, man can do*, the object of *can do* is the clause, *What man has done*. Or, substituting *that which* for *what*, *that* becomes the object of *can do*, and is modified by the adjective clause, *which man has done*. In this clause, *which* is the object of *has done*.

In consequence of this peculiar use of *what*, it also is frequently called a **compound conjunctive pronoun**.

What, *whose*, and *which* and their compounds are likewise frequently used as adjectives.

Examples: *Whatever* fortune stays him from his word.
Whose composition is this?
Which boy will go? (See next lesson.)

Exercise.

Show, as in the foregoing illustrations, the construction of each compound conjunctive pronoun in the following sentences.

1. Do what is right.
2. They wist not what it was.
3. Take whichever you prefer.
4. Whatever the council have voted, shall be done.
5. Whomsoever you send, I will entertain.
6. What is approved by the multitude is not alway just.
7. Whatsoever is right I will give you.
8. They condemn whatever I propose.
9. Here is an account of what was done.

CXXXVII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS AND INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

The words *who* (*whose*, *whom*), *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions and not followed by a noun, are called **interrogative pronouns**.

Examples: *Who* goes there? *Whose* is it? *Whom* did he address? *Which* do you prefer? *What* will you have?

Whose, *which*, and *what*, however, are frequently used before nouns in questions.

Examples: *Whose* book lies on the table? *Which* yacht is the swiftest? *What* vessel has just cast anchor?

When thus used, they are called **interrogative adjectives**.

The interrogative pronouns *who* (*whose*, *whom*), *which*, and *what*, are used where a question is only implied.

Examples: I have learned *who* sent him. I do not know *whose* opinion prevailed. We have decided on *whom* to call. I cannot tell *which* book he will prefer. No one knows *what* crime he committed.

Who and its objective form *whom* are the only interrogative or conjunctive pronouns that any one is likely to misuse.

Examples: I do not know *who* will finish the work.
Whom has he met? I do not know *whom* he has met.

Who is always used as a subject, and *whom* as an object.

Exercise.

(*a*) State whether the interrogative word in each of the questions below is an interrogative pronoun or an interrogative adjective. If an adjective, what noun does it limit? If a pronoun, is it a subject or an object? If an object, of what verb or preposition is it the object?

(*b*) State whether the interrogative word is used in an actual or in an implied question.

1. Who goes there?
2. Whose knife is that?
3. Whose knife have you?
4. Whom have you seen?
5. Which do you prefer?
6. What will you have?
7. What has delayed him?
8. What purpose led them?
9. Whose order did you fill?
10. What plan did he offer?
11. Whose did you approve?
12. Which aim is highest?
13. What use have you for the book?
14. Which boy will do the errand?
15. To whom did you bring the bouquet?
16. To which locksmith did you apply?
17. I do not know to what author he referred.
18. I have heard which candidate you favor.
19. To whose entreaty he yielded, is no longer a question.
20. He had forgotten who gave him the information.
21. I remember for whom the doctor was called.
22. Consider what sacrifices these pioneers have made.
23. I told him by whose advice I had come.
24. We shall learn of whom the band consists.
25. For what did the people next petition?
26. To what business will the man now devote himself?
27. In whose behalf they labored we already know.

CXXXVIII. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Some adjectives may be used as pronouns.

Examples: *This* book is mine. *This* is my book.
Some pupils are idle. *Some* are idle.
Neither way seems pleasant. *Neither* seems pleasant.

Such adjectives are called **adjective pronouns**, or **pronominal adjectives.**

Adjective pronouns may be divided into two classes — demonstrative and indefinite.

The **demonstrative pronouns** are: —

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
this	these
that	those

These pronouns point out objects definitely, *this* and *these* referring to things near at hand, *that* and *those* to things more distant.

The most common **indefinite pronouns** are *all*, *any*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *few*, *many*, *none*, *one*, *other*, *another*, *some*, *several*, *such*. They point out objects indefinitely.

Examples: *One* hardly knows what to do under the circumstances.
None so poor as to do him reverence. *All* is not lost.

Each, *either*, and *neither* are always singular.

Examples: *Each* of the men *is* armed.
Either of them *is* willing to go.
Neither of them *was* asked to go.

Some, *any*, and *no* are variously compounded forming nouns and adverbs; as, *somewhere*, *somewhat*, *sometimes*, *somebody*, *something*, *anything*, *anybody*, *nobody*.

Examples: *Something* is lacking. I did not see *anybody*.
Sometimes the roof no fretwork knew.

Some, as a pronoun, may be either singular or plural. When it refers to quantity, it is singular; when it refers to number, it is plural.

Examples: *Some* of the snow *is* very white. (Singular.)
Some of the garments *were* moth-eaten. (Plural.)

One, *other*, and *another* are inflected for the possessive case.

Examples: *One's* prospects may brighten and then fade.
Others' rights must be respected.
This child weeps at sight of *another's* tears.

Each other and *one another* imply reciprocal action or relation and are called **reciprocal pronouns**.

None (no one, not one, not any) is now rarely used as an adjective. As a pronoun, it is strictly singular, though sometimes used in the plural by good writers.

Examples: *None* of them *are* lost. Through this gate *none passes*.

Errors to be avoided in the Use of Pronouns.

1. We have invited the same speakers that were engaged for the former meeting; not, *as* were engaged for the former meeting.

2. The sea-sick traveler has one comfort: namely, his fellow-traveler is quite as badly off as he; not, as *him*.

3. His four boys were named John, William, Thomas, and Robert. The last was a graduate of Harvard: not, The *latter* was a graduate of Harvard. *Latter*, a comparative, properly refers to one of *only two*.

4. As the prize was offered to the pupil who passed the best examination, each had a chance; not, *all* had a chance.

The possessive case, rather than the objective, should precede the verbal noun in such examples as the following: —

5. I call to mind his running very rapidly; not, *him* running very rapidly.

6. His absence in Europe prevented their seeing him again; not, *them* seeing him again.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the pronouns in the following sentences, tell what kind they are, and name their antecedents.

(*b*) Name the pronominal adjectives, tell what kind they are, and what they modify.

1. One might suggest much on a topic so fruitful as that.
2. These pupils are more studious than those.
3. The former have the higher satisfaction.
4. Many of his plans, as well as of our own, have failed.
5. Several answered cheerfully; some murmured; a few were silent.
6. Either is disagreeable; both together are unbearable.
7. Another looked here for fruit, and found none.
8. Some put the bliss in action, some in ease.
9. Did he sell both, or neither, of the books?
10. They rose one (rose) after another.
11. Tell it not to any in the town.
12. From the rising of the sun to the going down of the same.
13. He shall come to his end, and none shall help him.
14. After certain years, the former shall come with great riches.
15. Each of yours is good, but neither of mine is.

CXXXIX. CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Exercise I.

(*a*) Name each clause below as adjective or adverbial, tell what it modifies, and give the name and purpose of the modifier in Italics.

(*b*) Each Italicized adverb below is the equivalent of what phrase or phrases?

(*c*) Point out the connective in each sentence.

1. We visited the field *on which* the great oaks stood.
2. We visited the field *where* the great oaks stood.
3. Jason found his glove *in the place in which* he dropped it.
4. Jason found his glove *where* he dropped it.
5. Foster threw the weight *as* you would throw a ball.

6. The athlete threw the cannon ball *with the ease with which* you would throw a baseball.
7. These immigrants suffered *through the time during which* the drought continued.
8. They suffered *while* the drought lasted.
9. The captain will be free *at the time at which* navigation closes.
10. He will be free *when* navigation closes.
11. I do not know the place *from which* he came.
12. I do not know *whence* he came.
13. I stood on the spot *where* Becket was killed.
14. Go *where* glory waits you.

Words that perform, at the same time, the office of a conjunction and of an adverb are **conjunctive adverbs.** The following list comprises those most frequently used: *after, as, before, since, till, until, when, where, while.*

Connectives that join terms of unequal rank are **subordinate connectives.** As a clause is always a dependent proposition, the word that connects a clause with the main proposition of the sentence is a subordinate connective.

In the foregoing exercise, you may see that whenever the Italicized adverb displaces two phrases, one of these contains a conjunctive pronoun and the other its antecedent. The phrase containing the pronoun always modifies the verb in the clause.

(*d*) Why is only one phrase displaced by *where* in the second sentence? Why two by *where* in the fourth?

In sentences like the following, *Can you tell me when you will do the work? when* is equivalent to *the time at which*, and the sentence is equivalent to,

Can you tell me the time at which you will do the work?

In this sentence, *time* is the object of the verb *tell*, and is modified by the adjective clause which follows. In the clause, *at which* (*time*) is an adverbial phrase modifying the verb *will do.*

Exercise 2.

Substitute phrases for the adverbs below.

1. There is society where none intrudes.
2. I saw the house where Shakespeare was born.
3. When friendships are real, they are not glass threads.
4. Some eyes may see the haven, where others see only the storm.
5. Have you learned when the steamer will sail?
6. He communed with himself as he went on his way.
7. When the scorner is punished, the simple is made wise.
8. We know not whither thou goest.
9. These immigrants will return whence they came.
10. The colonel led his regiment precisely as he was ordered.
11. Can you tell me when you planted this elm?

CXL. ANALYSIS.

Exercise.

In each of the following sentences point out (*a*) the unmodified subject, (*b*) the unmodified predicate, (*c*) the complement, (*d*) the copula, and (*e*) the modifiers and their uses.

1. Paul Revere was an American patriot.
2. The Muses were the goddesses of Art.
3. James Russell Lowell was a resident of Cambridge.
4. The advance line stood firm.
5. The excitement grows intense.
6. These three young men were classmates.
7. He was a blacksmith before he became a clergyman.
8. This man has been the gatekeeper for several years.
9. Yon gray lines are messages of day.
10. This statement holds good.
11. Self-confidence may be a source of weakness.
12. Homer and Euripides were famous Greek poets.
13. The sisters' farewell was touchingly tender.
14. Regular exercise was the origin and secret of his health.
15. The little girl appeared peevish.

CXLI. PHRASES.

We have already studied in Part I. adjective and adverb phrases made by combining prepositions with nouns.

Example: The soldier unfolded the flag *at the command of the captain.*

(1) As adjectives, phrases sometimes form the complements of copula verbs.

Examples: It seems *of no value* (valueless).
The vessels were *of oak* (oaken).

(2) Phrases containing verbals are often used as adjectives or nouns.

My sons enjoy rowing on the lake.

A message was received summoning him to the castle.

In the first sentence, *rowing on the lake* is a noun phrase, object of *enjoy*. In the second, *summoning . . . castle* is an adjective phrase, modifying *message*.

Such phrases may themselves be analyzed. Thus, the verbal noun *rowing* is the direct object of *enjoy*, and is modified by the adverbial phrase *on the lake*. The verbal adjective *summoning* modifies *message* as an adjective; and, as a verb, is modified (1) by the object *him*, and (2) by the adverbial phrase *to the castle*.

Of making many books, there is no end.

Of making many books is an adjective phrase modifying the noun *end*. The verbal noun *making* is the object of the preposition *of*; as a verb it takes the object *books*.

(3) The infinitive phrase may be used —

(*a*) As a **noun**: —

Example: Dare *to do* right. (Object of the verb *dare*.)

(*b*) As an **adjective**: —

Example: I have nothing *to do*. (Modifier of the noun *nothing*.)

(*c*) As an adverb: —

Example: He is eager *to go*, but is too feeble *to walk*. (Modifiers of adjectives.) (See page 229.)

(4) A noun or a pronoun is frequently so combined with a participle as to form an adverbial phrase which expresses cause.

Examples: *The teacher being absent*, the school was dismissed.
The fort having been taken, the order for reinforcements was countermanded.

Nouns and pronouns joined with participles to form adverbial phrases are said to be used absolutely.

Such phrases, however, are substitutes for clauses that modify the verb in the main proposition.

Example: *The teacher being absent*, the school was dismissed = The school was dismissed *because the teacher was absent.*

(5) Nouns are frequently used in abridged adverbial phrases to express *when*, *how*, *where*, *how much*, *how far*, etc. (See page 66.)

Examples: An army twenty *thousand* strong. A castle five *centuries* old. All *day* we waited. *Home* they brought her warrior dead. You came the nearest *way*.

Exercise.

The law is made to protect the innocent by punishing the guilty.

In this sentence, *to protect the innocent* is an adverbial phrase modifying the verb *is made*. It is introduced by the verbal noun *to protect*, denoting purpose.

By punishing the guilty is also an adverbial phrase, modifying *to protect*. It is introduced by the preposition *by*, followed by the verbal noun *punishing*.

Point out the phrases in the sentences below. Tell what kind each is, and what it modifies, and name the part of speech by which it is introduced.

1. Unable to use the oars, he drifted through the night.
2. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
3. The poet scorns to mend his verse.
4. The wall was of jasper.
5. To draw true beauty shows a master hand.
6. In cheapening of goods lies a threat toward the wage-earner.
7. Thrice promoted for his bravery, he is now a brigadier.
8. He now takes on him to reform the world.
9. To threaten me with death is to offend thy lungs.
10. The floor was of sand like [to] the mountain drift.
11. They deserve to perish.
12. The enemy, routed at all points, gave up the contest.
13. The birds, singing about me, awoke memories of childhood.
14. Peace seemed to reign upon earth.
15. Kept in a maze by her fear, she had not stirred.
16. The mountain in full view is Monadnock.
17. Matter of importance has come to light.
18. He fears to give a farthing to the poor.
19. Giving to the poor is lending to the Lord.
20. The mountain-wall is black against the east;
    There is no dew, no sound of bird or beast;
    The air is chilled with altitude and night;
    The dawn is near, and silence, like a queen,
    Sits mid the deserts, waiting for the light
    To touch with splendor all the arid scene.
21. Capt. K——, who paddled and sailed, in a frail canoe, from St. Johnsbury to Florida, has written about cruising among the sunny islands of the west coast of the Peninsular State.
22. Florence is haunted with the ghosts of great memories.

CXLII. NOUN CLAUSES.

(1) *That Columbus was shamefully treated, is certain.*

What is certain? What, then, is the subject of the sentence?

(2) *Our hope is that the Union will be perpetual.*

What is the complement of the copula?

(3) *General Grant knew that the enemy must soon surrender.*

Point out the object of the verb *knew*.

(4) *The news that our troops had won at Saratoga, gave us fresh courage.*

Point out the appositive.

In the foregoing sentences, we see a clause used in four different ways, — as a subject, as a complement, as an object, and as an appositive, — the four ways in which a noun (or pronoun) is used. Clauses thus used are called **noun clauses** (or substantive clauses).

Exercise I.

Point out the clauses below, and show how each is used.

1. That serious mistakes have been made, is not doubted.
2. His neighbors do not believe that he will accept.
3. The report that some have failed, does not deter us.
4. The truth is, that they were faint-hearted.
5. That the earth is round, was not then surmised.
6. Have you heard that the expedition has failed?
7. That the ignorant are allowed to vote, is a menace to our nation.
8. That we shall die, we know.
9. Who gives himself with his alms feeds three.

10. The assertion, that some of our immigrants are felons, is stoutly maintained.
11. The committee believe that this mishap arose from a laudable motive.
12. Next came the cheering report, that ample funds had been pledged.
13. The expectation now is, that each harvest will exceed that of the previous year.
14. That the finest railway station in the world is in India, you will be slow to believe.

Very often, sentences like several of the foregoing are introduced by the pronoun *it;* as,

It was not believed that the enemy had withdrawn.

Evidently, the real subject here is the noun clause introduced by the word *that*. *It*, the apparent subject, serves merely to introduce the predicate and give it a prominent place. So considered, *it* is called an **expletive**, and the clause is an **appositive**.

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Rewrite five or more of the sentences in Exercise 1, beginning each new sentence with the word *it*. Do not change the meaning.

(*b*) Point out the office of each noun clause in your new sentences.

CXLIII. NOUN CLAUSES (*continued*).

Exercise.

Show the construction, *i.e.* the office, of each noun clause in the sentences below.

1. Do you know who are coming?
2. Which man shall receive the contract, is undecided.
3. All are asking from what friend this munificent gift came.
4. How my canary escaped, puzzles me.
5. It does not yet appear where we shall lodge.

6. I will not say when you may have my reply.
7. On whom he relies for aid, even his brother does not know.
8. Whether the rate may be lessened, does not now concern us.
9. By what route we shall go, gives cause for debate.
10. It is not known on whose advice he acted.
11. Whither I go, ye know, and the way ye know.
12. Thou canst not tell whence it cometh and whither it goeth.
13. Archly the maiden smiled, and, with eyes overrunning with laughter,
    Said, in a tremulous tone, "Why don't you speak for yourself, John?"
14. Priscilla asked John Alden why he did not speak for himself.

Nos. 13 and 14 show that both the direct and the indirect quotation afford examples of noun clauses.

With the exception of the word *that*, the words we have thus far seen used to introduce noun clauses are (or may be) used in asking questions. They are of two classes: (1) Pronouns — *who* (*whose*, *whom*), *which*, *what* (*whether*[1]). (2) Adverbs — *when*, *where*, *how*, *why*, *whither*, *whence*.

CXLIV. NOUN CLAUSES (*continued*).

(1) *I will remember that.*
(2) *I will remember that which you say.*
(3) *I will remember what you say.*

In (1), what part of speech is *that?* What is its syntax? (*i.e.* what is its construction, or how is it used in the sentence?)

In (2), what part of speech is *that?* What is its syntax? How is *that* modified? What is the complete object of the verb *remember?* What is the object of *say?*

[1] *Whether* was originally a pronoun; as in, "Whether is greater, the gold or the temple?" It is now used only as a conjunction.

Is the thought in (3) the same as in (2)? What is the object of *remember?* of *say?*

It is plain that in (2) we have an adjective clause modifying the direct object *that*. But in (3), as the word *what* has no antecedent, the verb *remember* has, as its object, the noun clause *what you say;* and the verb *say* has, as its object, the pronoun *what*.

Exercise.

Analyze each of the following sentences, show the office of each clause, and point out the object of each transitive verb in the active voice.

1. James denies { the statement. / that which Peter affirms. / what Peter affirms.
2. The credulous believe { everything. / all that is said. / whatever is said.
3. Think on { reputable things. / things which are reputable. / whatsoever things are of good report.
4. An honest man will do { his duty. / those things which he promises. / whatsoever he promises.
5. The old man dotes on { trifles. / all that his son has done. / whatever his son has done.
6. { All that / Whatever } he asks is granted.
7. { The one that / Whichever } you leave I will accept.
8. { He who / Whoever } confesses is forgiven.
9. { He who / Who } steals my purse, steals trash.

CXLV. NOUN CLAUSES (*continued*).

A noun clause may be introduced —

(1) By the **subordinate conjunction** *that* or *whether*.

Examples: *That*[1] success depends upon industry, is generally admitted.

Whether the enemy will fight or surrender, is now to be proved.

Such sentences are often arranged as follows: —

Examples: *It* is generally admitted that success depends upon industry.

It is now to be proved whether the enemy will fight or surrender.

In these and similar sentences, the pronoun *it* is merely a substitute for the real subject, which appears later in the sentence. This arrangement adds to the force of the sentence by placing the predicate at the beginning. (See page 210.)

(2) By a **compound conjunctive pronoun.**

Examples: Each became *what* (that which) he most desired [to become].

Whosoever (he who) will, may come.

(3) By the **interrogative pronouns** *who*, *which*, and *what*.

Examples: I asked *what*[2] he wanted.

(4) By the **conjunctive adverbs** *when*, *where*, *whence*, etc.

Examples: I do not know *when* the examination will come.

He would not say *where* he had been.

Ye both know me, and ye know *whence* I am.

[1] The word *that*, in sentences like the first example above, is usually called a conjunction, though it would be difficult to tell what it connects. It is called by some grammarians a *sentence article*.

[2] A question is implied.

A noun clause may be used —

(1) As the **subject** of a sentence.

Example: *That you have wronged me* doth appear in this.

(2) As the **object** of a transitive verb.

Example: He did not find *what he sought.*

(3) As the **object** of a preposition.

Example: I will reflect on *what you have said.*

(4) As a **complement** of the verb *be*.

Example: Things are not *what they seem.*

(5) As an **appositive**.

Example: The president made proclamation *that the slaves should be set free.*

Exercise.

When will the steamer sail?

(1) Subject — When the steamer will sail is not known.

(2) Complement — The question is, When will the steamer sail?

(3) Appositive — The question, When will the steamer sail? is unanswered.

(4) Object — The owners know when the steamer will sail.

(*a*) Analyze each of the following sentences.

(*b*) Use each sentence as a noun clause in the four ways just indicated.

1. Who have engaged passage?
2. Whose goods have been refused?
3. Whom will this delay most injure?
4. Which course has been chosen?
5. What has been gained?

6. Where will she discharge her cargo?
7. Whither is she bound?
8. Whence will the silks be brought?
9. How has the news been spread?
10. Why is the steamer detained?
11. Wherefore were the facts concealed?

The interrogatives *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *what*, and *how*, may each form a part of a phrase.

Examples: *In whose favor* was the decision?
By whom were you delayed?
For how many days was the boat chartered?
To what purpose is this waste?

CXLVI. REVIEW OF CLAUSES.

Exercise.

In the following sentences, point out the clauses, tell what kind they are, and how each is used.

1. The farmer knows that he must sow.
2. The woman who is leading the child is very poor.
3. I heard Barrett when he played in New York.
4. That he is improving is certain.
5. I found the book where you left it.
6. My fervent wish is that your son may recover.
7. The preacher spoke of the harm which one cruel word may do.
8. Do you know where I can find the book?
9. Did he think how quickly his enemy would discover him?
10. Did you see where I put my knife?

A clause is usually connected with the rest of the sentence by some conjunctive word. This conjunctive word may be a **conjunction**, as in the first sentence above; a **conjunctive pronoun**, as in the second sentence; or a **conjunctive adverb**, as in the third sentence.

In such sentences as the first and sixth, *that* is usually called a conjunction, but it is rather a demonstrative pronoun representing the clause that follows.

CXLVII. RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES.

Last term we read the book that you recommended.
Last term we read "Marmion," which charmed us.

If you examine the two sentences above, you will see that both are complex in form. In the first sentence, however, the clause *that you recommended* restricts the meaning of the noun *book* to a particular book. It was the book *that you recommended.* Such clauses are called **restrictive.**

In the second sentence, the noun *Marmion* itself defines exactly what book was read. No word or clause is needed to make the thought clearer. The statement that follows, namely, *which charmed us*, merely adds another thought to the one already expressed, and the word *which* might be replaced by the words *and it* without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Such a statement, though introduced by a conjunctive pronoun, is not strictly a clause: it is not used as a part of speech, but is coördinate with the main proposition.

Non-restrictive clauses should be separated from the rest of a sentence by a comma or by commas. Restrictive clauses are not often thus separated.

Exercise.

(*a*) Analyze and punctuate the following sentences. The first four sentences are correctly punctuated.

(*b*) Give the reason for using or not using the comma before the adjective clauses.

1. Last evening I heard Patti, whose return to America has been so warmly welcomed.
2. I have now heard one of the finest vocalists that have ever visited our city.

3. My uncle's partner was a member of the 51st Congress, which expired March 4, 1891.
4. Yonder structure was built for a barrack, which accounts for its peculiar form.
5. Proofs of a Power above us are furnished by man's physical form which is wrought with a skill that no human power can rival.
6. The light fell with a soft entrancement on Newstead Abbey which was the poet Byron's home.
7. I will seek the beauty that God has hid in the winter landscape.
8. In Cambridge we next visited the Washington Elm beneath whose shade the Father of his Country assumed command of the American forces.
9. There is always hope for a man who loves any living creature.
10. Frame your mind for merriment which bars a thousand harms.
11. Yesterday I met an old pupil whom I failed to recognize.

CXLVIII. AUXILIARIES.

(Review Lesson CVI., page 156.)

Verbs, in English, have but few forms, or inflections. None have more than five in common use, many have but four, and a few have only two.

In consequence of this lack of inflection in verbs, it becomes necessary to call in the help of other words to express ideas which, in some languages, are expressed by inflections. These helping words, or **auxiliaries**, as they are called, are but few in number, but they are in almost constant use.

The verb with which the auxiliary is combined is usually called the **principal verb.**

The auxiliaries are —

(1) Do (does, did), shall, will, may, can, must, might, could, would, should.
(2) Have (has, had).
(3) Be (is, am, are, was, were, being, been).

These auxiliaries, when combined with verb forms, make verb-phrases.

Examples: He *does give*. I *will go*. The child *has written* the exercise. The museum *will be opened*. Helen *can speak* French. He *had been wounded*.

Exercise.

PRESENT		PAST	IMP. PART.	PERF. PART.
go	*goes*	*went*	*going*	*gone*
write	*writes*	*wrote*	*writing*	*written*
speak	*speaks*	*spoke*	*speaking*	*spoken*

The usual forms that a verb may have are represented above by the inflection of the verbs *go*, *write*, *speak*.

(*a*) With which of the five verb forms above may the auxiliaries marked (1) be used?

(*b*) With which of the five verb forms may the auxiliaries marked (2) be used?

(*c*) With which may the auxiliaries marked (3) be used?

(*d*) How is the progressive form of the verb made? How is the passive form made?

CXLIX. AUXILIARIES (*continued*).

The auxiliaries in the list marked (1) on page 217, when combined in verb-phrases, are the real verbs; and the words with which they are combined are **infinitives**.

The *to* which usually precedes the infinitive is omitted after an auxiliary.

Examples: I will (am determined *to*) go.
He must (is compelled *to*) work.

We omit the *to* before the infinitive in many other cases so familiar that the omissions give no offense.

Examples: The driver made the horse (to) run. The teacher bade the child (to) go.

Have and *be*, with their inflected forms, when combined as auxiliaries in verb-phrases, are also the real verbs, and the participles with which they are combined are verbal adjectives. (See page 131.)

As all verb-phrases are used in consequence of a lack of inflection in what has been called the principal verb, the whole phrase is looked upon as the verb.

Do (*does*, *did*), *have* (*has*, *had*), *will*, and *be* (*is*, *am*, *are*, *was*, *were*) are also used as principal verbs.

Examples: The boy will *do* his work well. The clerk *has* a good situation, and has always *had* the confidence of his employer. The childless merchant *willed* his property to his clerk. The flowers *are* beautiful.

Shall and *will* are used with the root infinitive to express future time. (See page 129.)

Example: I *shall* go to-morrow.

The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, and sometimes the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*, do not indicate the time of the action, but rather liberty, possibility, obligation, power, etc., with only an implied reference to time. (See Lesson CLI.)

Examples:

He *may* go — to-day, to-morrow, or next week.
He *might* go now, if he chose; but he will not go until to-morrow.
I *will* take the order now, unless you prefer that I *shall* wait.

The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, combined with the infinitive, form **potential**[1] **verb-phrases**.

[1] *Potential* means *powerful, possible.* Potential verb-phrases are those that express *power, possibility, obligation,* etc.

CL. AUXILIARIES (*continued*).

Exercise.

Fill the blanks below with one of the forms of some verb; give all the forms of the verb you use; and state which form (whether root, imperfect participle, or perfect participle) you have used in the sentence.

1. I do —— to my friend often.
2. He has —— great pains with his exercise.
3. I am sure you will —— to do your best.
4. They did —— though they promised to remember.
5. Had he —— to you about the matter?
6. Shall I —— this book on your desk?
7. We had —— the horse too rapidly.
8. They have never —— finer roses.
9. The robin has —— away.
10. He will have —— the sled to the summit.
11. The train was —— rapidly.
12. If the vessel be ——, the merchant will be ruined.
13. Whether the battle be —— or ——, more troops must be raised.

Having tried to use each auxiliary with all the forms of the verb, you have without doubt learned: —

(1) That all the auxiliaries except *have* and *be* may properly be used with the root of the verb, and with no other form.

(2) That the auxiliary *have* cannot be used with any form except the perfect participle.

(3) That *be* may be used with either participle, but with no other form.

Being,[1] used with a perfect participle of a transitive

[1] The fashion of using the forms of the verb *be* as auxiliaries to the participle *being* has grown up in times comparatively modern. This fashion, though at first strongly resisted by scholars, seems bound to prevail. Expressions like the following are now quite common: *The houses were being built, The work*

verb, forms a **passive participle**, or **passive verbal adjective**; as, *The letter is being written.*

(For the formation of the progressive and passive forms, see pages 131, 160.)

CLI. POTENTIAL VERB-PHRASES.

Potential verb-phrases express action, being, or state, as possible, necessary, obligatory, etc.

In these verb-phrases, the infinitive *names* the action, being, or state, and the auxiliary expresses the power, will, or obligation of some one or some thing represented by the subject.

Annie can do the work very quickly.

In this sentence, the infinitive *do* names the act (doing). The auxiliary *can* expresses the fact that Annie is able to do the work.

Annie should do the work before breakfast.

Here *should* expresses the obligation resting on Annie.

Can and *could* express power; *may* and *might* express possibility or liberty; *must* expresses necessity; *would* may express inclination; and *should* may express obligation.

Examples: The merchant *would* gladly promote this clerk.
Children *should* obey their parents.

Potential verb-phrases may be used in asking questions.

Examples: *May* I take your book?
Could we reach the summit?

The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* cannot be assigned to tenses, for they seldom indicate the time of an action; the time, when not left indefi-

is being done. The old form used in expressing the same idea was, *The houses were a-building, The work is a-doing.* In these sentences, *a* has the force of a preposition.

nite, is usually determined by some modifying word or phrase, either expressed or implied.

Examples: I may go *to-morrow.*
He might pay his debts *in a year* [if he chose].

The auxiliary *do* indicates either present or indefinite time; *did*, past time; *shall* and *will*, future time, or present determination to perform a future action.

Example: I *will* learn his address.

All potential verb-phrases may be so used as to imply either present or future time. *Would* and *could* are sometimes used in expressing a past action.

Example: He *would* go, and I *could* not prevent it.

As *I shall* implies mere futurity, while *you shall* at once suggests obligation, so *I should* (the past of *shall*) usually differs from *you should.*

Examples: I *should* like to go. He *should* go at once.

Like change, but in reverse order, is seen when we compare the forms *I will* and *you will*; *I would* and *you would.*

Examples: I *would* try at all events. *Would* you do this?

CLII. REVIEW OF TENSES.

(Review Lessons LXXXIX.–XCII., pages 125–130.)

(1) What is the meaning of the word *tense?* What are the three principal divisions of time?

(2) What form of the verb expresses present or indefinite time?

(3) How is past time expressed by the verb?

(4) What is a regular verb? An irregular verb?

(5) Is future time expressed by an inflection of a verb or by an auxiliary? If by the latter, what auxiliaries are used for that purpose?

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the verbs. Tell whether regular or irregular. (*b*) Give the tense, and tell whether it is indicated by an inflection or by an auxiliary.

1. Worthiest poets
Shun common and plebeian forms of speech.

2. Joy is wont to overflow, but grief shrinks back to its sources.
3. She became more religious without becoming less worldly.
4. In sorrow sweetest things will grow.
5. The wind bloweth where it listeth.
6. All the crimson changed into deep orange o'er the sea.

7. The path by which we twain did go,
Through four sweet years arose and fell.

8. The house leaned away from the street as if disdainful of our age.
9. The results do not add to the sum total of human knowledge.
10. Law wears iron shoes, and cares not where it steps.

CLIII. PERFECT TENSES.

We have learned that verbs are inflected; that the root of the verb expresses sometimes present and sometimes indefinite time; that an inflection of the root indicates past time; and that to express future time we use the auxiliary *shall* or *will* before the root of the verb.

Present, *walk;* past, *walked;* future, *shall* or *will walk.*

There are three verb-phrases, called perfect tenses, that must now be studied.

Present Perfect Tense.

When we wish to assert an action as completed in present time (to-day, this week, this year), we use the auxiliary *have* (or *has*) before the **perfect participle** of the verb.

Examples: I *have been* to New York this week.
The boy *has learned* his lessons well to-day.

The expressions *I have been to New York last week*, or *The boy has learned his lessons well yesterday*, are evidently incorrect. Why?

The verb-phrase formed by combining the auxiliary *have* (or *has*) with the perfect participle of some verb is the **present perfect tense** of the verb.

The term *present perfect* may be taken as indicating two things; viz. (1) a present period[1] of time (in which the action has taken place), and (2) perfect or completed action.

Past Perfect Tense.

When we wish to express an action as completed at or before a past time (mentioned or implied), we use the auxiliary *had* with the perfect participle of some verb. This verb-phrase is called the **past perfect tense** of the verb.

Examples: I *had eaten* my dinner before the clock struck one.
I *had been* at home half an hour when he came.

Future Perfect Tense.

To express an action as completed at some future time mentioned, we use the auxiliaries *shall have* or *will have* with the perfect participle of a verb. This verb-phrase is the **future perfect tense** of the verb.

Example: He *will have finished* his dinner before you arrive.

Notice that the perfect tenses of a verb are formed by combining its **perfect participle** with the primary tenses of *have*.

Examples: Present Perfect. I have *finished*.
Past Perfect. I had *finished*.
Future Perfect. I shall have *finished*.

[1] A period of time not including the present moment is not a present period; and a period including this moment is a present period, though it may cover years or centuries; as, *I have lived here six years.* (A present period.) *I went this morning.* (A past period.)

Exercise.

(*a*) Give the entire subject and the entire predicate of each sentence below.

(*b*) Point out each verb-phrase, name its tense, and tell how it is formed.

1. Soon our places in the school will have been taken by others.
2. The songsters of the air have flown to warmer climes.
3. The telescope has already revealed hundreds of asteroids.
4. At the close of the year 1800, not one asteroid had been discovered
5. By midsummer, the channel of this river will have changed.
6. These pioneers have engaged in a combat with poverty.
7. The year now closing has been one of almost universal peace.
8. Hast thou entered into the treasures of the snow?
9. In 1788, the decree for Voltaire's banishment had not been canceled.
10. Before the springtime, some sad facts will have been forced upon our minds.
11. Then Time shall have sundered shell from pearl.
12. Explorations in Assyria, Palestine, and Egypt have thrown marvelous light upon the history of the ancient world.

CLIV. SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

(Review Lesson CV., page 154.)

There is another mode that is worthy of study, though it seems gradually to be going out of use. This mode is found only in subjoined dependent propositions, and hence is called **subjunctive.** It has only three tenses; viz. present, past, and past perfect.

The subjunctive mode is used (1) to denote a **contingency**; as, *If he ask a pardon*, it will be granted. (2) To express a **wish**; as, *Would we were* at our journey's end. (3) To express an **unreal condition**; as, *Had the leader been present*, we should not have been defeated.

The clause containing the subjunctive is usually introduced by one of the following conjunctions: *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *lest*, etc.

Peculiarities of the Subjunctive.

Although the subjunctive mode has no verb form that is not used in other modes, yet it uses the two verbs *be* and *were* in a peculiar way. If we put the conjugations of the verb *be* in the two simple tenses of the indicative and of the subjunctive mode side by side, this difference will at once appear.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
Indicative.	**Subjunctive.**	**Indicative.**	**Subjunctive.**
If I am	If I be	If we are	If we be
If you are	If you be	If you are	If you be
If he is	If he be	If they are	If they be

Past Tense.

If I was	If I were	If we were	If we were
If you were	If you were	If you were	If you were
If he was	If he were	If they were	If they were

These are the only peculiarities shown by the subjunctive, except that the *-s* form gives place to the root of the verb; as,

If the performance prove (not *proves*) *interesting*, I shall remain.

In the subjunctive, *be* is called a form of the present tense, and *were* a form of the past. But notice the time implied by each when in use, as in the sentences following.

If the weather be fine (*to-morrow*), *the company will be large.*

Here *be*, though present in form, expresses future time.

If the weather were fine (to-day), the ship would sail.

In this sentence *were* is past in form, but expresses present time. In both examples the time indicated by the verb form differs from its real meaning.

Notice that in the past tense the supposition is opposed to the fact. *If the weather were fine* implies that it is not.

The past perfect subjunctive is the same in form as the past perfect indicative, but the same implied denial is seen as in the past subjunctive.

Examples: *If I had been prudent* (yesterday), I should have taken a carriage. (I was not prudent.)
Had I not foreseen failure, I should have joined the expedition. (I did foresee failure.)

Notice that the past perfect tense of this verb expresses past time.

Except in expressing a wish the subjunctive clause states the condition on which the main assertion rests, though the real meaning of the subjoined clause is often shown by the assertion in the principal proposition. The latter reveals the state of mind of the speaker, and thus determines the mode of the conditional clause.

If you knew my fault { why did you not reprove me? (Ind.)
you would reprove me. (Sub.)

If there were vacant seats { why did not the usher admit us? (Ind.)
the usher would admit us. (Sub.)

The examples above show that in the past and past perfect tenses when the conditional clause is **indicative**, it *assumes* a fact, and when **subjunctive**, it *implies* denial.

The conjunctions *if*, *though*, etc., are no certain sign of the subjunctive mode, nor is their absence proof of the indicative.

Examples: If she *knows* her duty, she will do it. (Ind.)
Were he honest, he would be chosen. (Sub.)

When the conjunction is omitted before a subjunctive clause, the subject follows the verb or the first auxiliary.

Notice that a subjoined clause expressing doubt, contingency, etc., modifies the verb in the main proposition: it is therefore **adverbial.**

Some writers of excellent repute make little use of expressions like, *If it rain, unless he go, whether he leave*, etc. Others use the forms *is* and *be* with no seeming preference for either, and the *-s* form of the verb is slowly supplanting the root form.

Exercise.

(*a*) Why is a proposition that is introduced by *if*, *though*, or *unless*, a clause?

(*b*) Point out the clauses below, and tell what each modifies.

(*c*) Point out the verb forms that are subjunctive. Which of these imply denial?

1. The man runs as if he feared arrest.
2. If an inscription be put upon my tomb, it may be this.
3. Had the chorister been present, we should have had fine singing.
4. Unless we sow, we shall not reap.
5. If the nominee were assured of your support, he would not withdraw.
6. If thy heart fails thee, climb not.
7. Beware lest thou be led into temptation.
8. I will not let thee go, except thou bless me.
9. He will not live to my age unless he keep in breath with exercise and in heart with joyfulness.
10. If the youth heed his mother's counsel, he may yet become a worthy citizen.
11. Though the mills of God grind slowly,
    Yet they grind exceeding small.

CLV. INFINITIVES.

(Review pages 133–137 and 206.)

We learned in Part II. that there are two verbal nouns, called infinitives, one ending in *ing*, and one consisting of the root of a verb preceded by the preposition *to*.

Examples: *To preach* is easier than to practice. (Infinitive phrase.)
Preaching is easier than practicing. (Infinitive in *ing*.)

It will be seen in the first example that the infinitive is a **noun phrase**. Infinitive phrases are also used as adjectives or adverbs.

Examples: I have a house *to let*. (Adjective modifying *house*.)
He is eager *to go*. (Adverb modifying *eager*.)

The principal uses of the infinitive phrase, then, are the following: —

(1) A **noun, subject** of a sentence; as, *To err is human.*

(2) A **noun, object** of a transitive verb; as, *I like to read.*

(3) A **noun, object** of a preposition; as, *I am about to start.*

(4) A **noun complement** of a verb; as, *To try is to succeed.*

(5) A **noun appositive**; as, *He had the misfortune to lose his money.*

(6) An **adjective**; as, *Air to breathe is a vital necessity.*

(7) An **adverb**; as, *I was sorry to miss the concert.*

The sign *to* of the infinitive is usually omitted after the active voice of the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *have* (in the sense of *cause*), *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, and *see*.

Examples: I bade him (to) go. I heard you (to) speak. We heard the birds (to) sing. The teacher will have the boy (to) recite.

Exercise 1.

State concerning each of the following infinitives whether it is used as a subject, an object, a complement, an appositive, an adjective, or an adverb.

1. To sin is to suffer.
2. He forgot to write.
3. We are in haste to begin.
4. The horse is eager to start.
5. You have a problem to solve.
6. You ought to go.
7. I am prepared to hear you.
8. He wished to see the end.
9. You were kind enough to aid.
10. She longed to reach the child.
11. They saw the enemy advance.
12. Leaves have their time to fall.
13. They had the good fortune to escape.
14. The student has a license to preach.
15. The cuckoo tried to steal the nest.
16. They can be trusted to follow.
17. The committee have two plans to offer.
18. She is sad to see her sister failing.
19. I have come to hear you (to) sing.
20. Their efforts seem to fail.
21. Thou art glad to find thyself so strong.
22. It seems sweet to rest upon the clover sod.

Exercise 2.

Analyze the following sentences.

1. Be careful to avoid giving offense.
2. She has promised to sing in aid of the poor.
3. In that elder day, to be a Roman was greater than to be a king.
4. A quarrel arose from a misunderstanding respecting the true meaning of one term in the contract.
5. You can not avoid seeing that this doctrine has been gradually superseding the other.
6. Will men refrain from injuring others unless they have within them a benevolent spirit prompting them to do good?
7. Who would not give a trifle to prevent
   What he would give a thousand worlds to cure?
8. Our leading publishers are endeavoring to supply a demand for choice literature by bringing out the works of the best writers.

CLVI. INFINITIVES (*continued*).

In the Bible, and in writings of two or three centuries ago, the infinitive is sometimes used as the object of the preposition *for*.

Examples: What went ye out *for to see?*

And hath made of one blood all nations of men, *for to dwell* on the face of the earth.

In modern English, the preposition *for* before an infinitive has disappeared, except in the language of the uneducated; but the infinitive is still used to express a **purpose**.

Example: He came *to learn*. (Why did he come?)

Exercise.

(*a*) In each of the following sentences point out the infinitive, tell how it is used, and what it modifies.

(*b*) Analyze the last three sentences.

1. These men were sent to rule a distant province.
2. She must be examined to test her sanity.
3. The law was framed to prevent injustice.
4. They met to solemnize the feast.
5. He is old enough to vote.
6. Love would freely die to shield thee.
7. The sentinel was set to guard the gate.
8. To do a great deed may demand a great sacrifice.
9. Not to save my right hand would I do it.
10. I forgot to mail the letter.
11. The traveler stayed by a cool spring to rest.
12. He is too young to enlist.
13. To cure their mad ambition, the emperor sent these men to rule a distant province.
14. The lesson to learn is the well-doing of present duty.
15. Sympathy will open doors which all other keys fail to unlock.
16. To cease to change is to cease to live.

CLVII. CONJUGATIONS (*for Reference*).

We have seen that five of the parts of speech are inflected, and that the inflection of verbs is called **conjugation.**

The term *conjugation* is also used to designate an orderly arrangement of the forms of a verb in the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons. (See page 156.)

Such a conjugation is convenient for reference, though it consists of little more than an orderly arrangement of auxiliaries in different tenses of the verb.

The important thing to know is, the law that governs the few forms that we have.

THE VERBS *HAVE, BE, MOVE.* (Active Voice.)

Indicative Mode.

Verb *Have.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS. — Pres., *have*; Past, *had*; Perf. Part., *had*.

PRIMARY TENSES.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I have	We have
You have	You have
He has	They have

Past Tense.

I had	We had
You had	You had
He had	They had

Future Tense (sign, *shall* or *will*).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I shall have	We shall have
You will have	You will have
He will have	They will have

Indicative Mode (*continued*).

PERFECT TENSES.

Present Perfect Tense (sign, *have*).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I have had	We have had
You have had	You have had
He has had	They have had

Past Perfect Tense (sign, *had*).

I had had	We had had
You had had	You had had
He had had	They had had

Future Perfect Tense (sign, *shall have* or *will have*).

I shall have had	We shall have had
You will have had	You will have had
He will have had	They will have had

Verb *Be*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. — Pres., *be* or *am*; Past, *was*; Perf. Part., *been*.

PRIMARY TENSES.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I am	We are
You are	You are
He is	They are

Past Tense.

I was	We were
You were	You were
He was	They were

Future Tense (sign, *shall* or *will*).

I shall be	We shall be
You will be	You will be
He will be	They will be

Indicative Mode (*continued*).

PERFECT TENSES.

Present Perfect Tense (sign, *have*).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I have been	We have been
You have been	You have been
He has been	They have been

Past Perfect Tense (sign, *had*).

I had been	We had been
You had been	You had been
He had been	They had been

Future Perfect Tense (sign, *shall have* or *will have*).

I shall have been	We shall have been
You will have been	You will have been
He will have been	They will have been

Verb *Move*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS — Pres., *move*; Past, *moved*; Perf. Part., *moved*.

PRIMARY TENSES.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I move	We move
You move	You move
He moves	They move

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I moved	We moved
You moved	You moved
He moved	They moved

Future Tense (sign, *shall* or *will*).

I shall move	We shall move
You will move	You will move
He will move	They will move

Indicative Mode (*continued*).

PERFECT TENSES.

Present Perfect Tense (sign, *have*).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I have moved	We have moved
You have moved	You have moved
He has moved	They have moved

Past Perfect Tense (sign, *had*).

I had moved	We had moved
You had moved	You had moved
He had moved	They had moved

Future Perfect Tense (sign, *shall have* or *will have*).

I shall have moved	We shall have moved
You will have moved	You will have moved
He will have moved	They will have moved

Imperative Mode.

The imperative mode is used only in the present tense, second person, and the only form used is the root.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Second Per.	Have, *or* have thou	Have, *or* have ye *or* you
	Be, *or* be thou	Be, *or* be ye *or* you
	Move, *or* move thou	Move, *or* move ye *or* you

Subjunctive Mode.

Notice (1), that subjunctive clauses are usually introduced by a conjunction expressing doubt, condition, or contingency (*if*, *though*, *unless*, etc.); (2) that, when used subjunctively, neither the principal verb nor the auxiliary takes the *-s* form; (3) that the subjunctive mode has but three tenses, viz. present, past, and past perfect.

Subjunctive Mode (*continued*).

Verb *Have*.

Present Tense

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
If I have	If we have
If you have	If you have
If he have	If they have

Past Tense.

If I had	If we had
If you had	If you had
If he had	If they had

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had had	If we had had
If you had had	If you had had
If he had had	If they had had

Verb *Be*.

Present Tense.

If I be	If we be
If you be	If you be
If he be	If they be

Past Tense.

If I were	If we were
If you were	If you were
If he were	If they were

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had been	If we had been
If you had been	If you had been
If he had been	If they had been

Subjunctive Mode (*continued*).

Verb *Move*.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
If I move	If we move
If you move	If you move
If he move	If they move

Past Tense.

If I moved	If we moved
If you moved	If you moved
If he moved	If they moved

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had moved	If we had moved
If you had moved	If you had moved
If he had moved	If they had moved

Infinitives.

Pres.	To have	*Perf.*	To have had
	To be		To have been
	To move		To have moved

Participles.

Pres.	Having	*Perf.*	Had	*Compound Perf*	Having had
	Being		Been		Having been
	Moving		Moved		Having moved

For the conjugation of the progressive and passive forms, see the verb "drive," page 238.

THE VERB *DRIVE*. (Progressive and Passive.)

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	Prog.	Pass.		Prog.	Pass.
I am	driving	driven	We are	driving	driven
You are	driving	driven	You are	driving	driven
He is	driving	driven	They are	driving	driven

Past Tense.

I was	driving	driven	We were	driving	driven
You were	driving	driven	You were	driving	driven
He was	driving	driven	They were	driving	driven

Future Tense.

I shall be	driving	driven	We shall be	driving	driven
You will be	driving	driven	You will be	driving	driven
He will be	driving	driven	They will be	driving	driven

Present Perfect Tense.

I have been	driving	driven	We have been	driving	driven
You have been	driving	driven	You have been	driving	driven
He has been	driving	driven	They have been	driving	driven

Past Perfect Tense.

I had been	driving	driven	We had been	driving	driven
You had been	driving	driven	You had been	driving	driven
He had been	driving	driven	They had been	driving	driven

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall have been	driving	driven	We shall have been	driving	driven
You will have been	driving	driven	You will have been	driving	driven
He will have been	driving	driven	They will have been	driving	driven

Infinitives.

Present Progressive,	To be driving
Present Passive,	To be driven
Perfect Progressive,	To have been driving
Perfect Passive,	To have been driven

Participles.

Passive Progressive,	Being driven
Perfect, Active or Passive,	Driven
Compound Perfect Progressive,	Having been driving
Compound Perfect Passive,	Having been driven

Subjunctive Mode.

The progressive and the passive forms of the three tenses of the subjunctive mode are now known, since they are made by adding the imperfect and the passive participles to the subjunctive forms of *be*. Thus,—

		Progressive.	Passive.
Present.	If I be	driving	driven
Past.	If I were	driving	driven
Past Perf.	If I had been	driving	driven

The voice of a perfect participle can not be determined from its form; but when it is used in a sentence or even in a verb-phrase, an infinitive, or a compound participle, the voice is at once evident. In the active voice, the perfect participle is used in combination with *have*, to form the three perfect tenses and the compound participle. When used without an auxiliary or in combination with some form of *be*, it is passive.

Examples: I have *driven* the horse ten miles. (Active.)
The son, *crowned* with blessing, took his leave. (Pass.)
He was *driven* to his cage by the keeper. (Pass.)

CLVIII. THE ANCIENT FORMS OF VERBS.

(Review Lesson CIX., page 161.)

Exercise 1.

This thou knowest.
This you know.

Write the following sentences, changing both verbs and pronouns to the common style. Be careful not to change the tense.

1. Thou didst strive against thy tempter.
2. Why doth this man seek thy harm?
3. Thou renewest the kind service I had from thee before.
4. The new piece teareth away from the old garment.
5. Thou didst drive out the heathen: thou plantedst them: thou didst afflict the people.
6. Thou hast not let me know whom thou wilt send.
7. When thou wast young, thou girdedst thyself and walkedst whither thou wouldest.
8. O daughter of Babylon, who art to be destroyed, happy shall he be that rewardeth thee!

Exercise 2.

Change the following to the ancient, or solemn, style without change of tense.

1. Your own mouth condemns you.
2. Bread strengthens the heart of your child.
3. The place where you (sing.) stand is holy ground.
4. Who are you (sing.) that judge another?
5. The mustard seed shoots up, and throws out great branches.
6. James, you have guided them well, and shall conduct them to-morrow.
7. My brother, you knew this need of your neighbor, yet did not open your hand to aid.

CLIX. REVIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

(1) Define the terms *inflection* and *conjugation*.

(2) Name the four auxiliaries that may also be used as principal verbs. Illustrate both uses in sentences.

(3) How many forms of *be* are there in the indicative present? in the past? in the future? Why do *are* and *were* appear among the singular forms?

(4) How are the perfect tenses made? How many forms of the auxiliary *have* appear in the perfect tenses?

(5) In all verbs except *be*, how does the present subjunctive differ from the present indicative? Do the verb forms in the past perfect subjunctive differ from those in the past perfect indicative?

(6) Tell how the passive and progressive forms are made, and illustrate in sentences.

(7) Write three sentences, each containing a verb in the ancient form, — one in the present tense, one in the past, and one in the past perfect.

CLX. THE OBJECTIVE NOUN CLAUSE ABRIDGED.

Examine the sentences in the following pairs and tell whether they differ in thought or only in form.

(1) *The physician declared that the man was sane.*
(2) *The physician declared the man to be sane.*

(1) *The professor decides that these ruins were castle walls.*
(2) *The professor decides these ruins to have been castle walls.*

(1) *I think that he is right.* (1) *I know that it is he.*
(2) *I think him to be right.* (2) *I know it to be him.*

It will be seen that each sentence marked (1) contains an objective noun clause; and that each sentence marked

(2) contains an objective noun phrase equivalent in meaning to the clause. The meaning of the two sentences is the same, but the clause has been abridged to a phrase. These are called **grammatical equivalents**.

In such phrases, an infinitive takes the place of the verb, and the subject of the clause appears, in the phrase, in the objective case. This last change is shown only where the subject is a pronoun having a case form in the objective. (See third pair.)

The verb *be* in all its forms takes the same case after as before it; consequently its noun or pronoun complement, in objective noun phrases, must be in the objective.

The infinitive, though it never asserts directly, is often used to predicate indirectly. When so used, the noun or pronoun preceding, though in the objective case, is called the **subject** of the infinitive. Hence the rule: —

The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

Exercise I.

Rewrite the following sentences, choosing the correct form from each parenthesis, and give a reason for your choice.

1. I know that it was (her, she).
2. I know it to have been (her, she).
3. You thought it was (he, him).
4. You thought it was to be (he, him).
5. (Who, whom) did you see?
6. Was it (he, him) or (her, she)?
7. I know (whom, who) it is for.
8. They knew (whom, who) it was.
9. I took it to be (he, him).
10. We were sure that it was (her, she).
11. Do you suppose it to be (they, them)?
12. Do you suppose that it is (they, them)?

Exercise 2.

(*a*) Point out the clauses and phrases in the following sentences and give their construction.

(*b*) Expand the noun phrases into clauses.

1. The general orders him to retire.
2. I deem that she is stricken.
3. They feigned themselves to be timid.
4. She conceived that he had become a prince.
5. Do you imagine the clouds to be islands?
6. I fancy her to be a countess.
7. You guess that I am sixteen.
8. I conjecture him to be in trouble.
9. They hold that we are their debtors.

CLXI. INDIRECT OBJECTS OF VERBS.

A few verbs in the language may be followed by two objects, one called the **direct**, and the other the **indirect**.

My employer paid me the money.

Here *me* and *money* both appear as objects of the verb *paid*, but if the sentence is rearranged thus: *My employer paid the money to me*, it will be seen that *me* is the object of the preposition *to*, while *money* is the object of the verb.

The object following the preposition, expressed or understood, is, in such examples, the indirect object of the verb; the other is its direct object.

Among the verbs that may be followed by two objects are the following: —

allow	forgive	obtain	promise	show
ask	gain	offer	provide	teach
bring	get	pay	refuse	tell
buy	give	prepare	sell	write
deny	make	procure	send	yield

Sentences containing two objects, one direct and the other indirect, will frequently furnish two passive constructions.

Examples: Active, The governor gave him the office.
Passive, He was given the office by the governor.
The office was given to him by the governor.

Exercise I.

(*a*) Rewrite the following sentences so as to show the construction of the direct and the indirect object. Draw one line under the direct object and two under the indirect.[1]

(*b*) Change each sentence from the active to the passive form. When possible, show two passive forms.

1. The gate keeper refused them admittance.
2. I will ask you one question.
3. My brother will buy me a watch.
4. Did the Secretary furnish you instructions?
5. The merchant left his children a large estate.
6. The citizens gave Minister Lowell a banquet.
7. I will teach you the fear of the Lord.
8. The prisoner's former blameless life will insure him an early pardon.
9. Varied forms give language a charm.
10. The orchard yielded the farmer ample return for his labor.
11. The governor gave him the office.
12. The President sent Congress a copy of his message.

[1] The indirect object is sometimes called the dative-objective, to distinguish it from the direct object, sometimes called the accusative-objective. The dative case, in old English, was an inflected form of the noun and pronoun denoting the same relations that are denoted by the prepositions *to* and *for* in modern English. In like manner, our possessive case, denoted by the apostrophe and *s*, often indicates the same relation as the preposition *of*. *The President's proclamation = The proclamation of the President. The earth's motion = The motion of the earth.* The forms of nouns and pronouns when following prepositions, are now the same as when following transitive verbs, so that the name *dative* is no longer needed.

CLXII. OBJECTIVE ATTRIBUTE.

Predicate nouns and predicate adjectives are called **attributes** of the subject, because they denote properties or characteristics attributed to the subject. (See page 54.)

In like manner, the object of a verb is sometimes followed by a noun or an adjective denoting an attribute of the object, that is conferred through the action expressed by the verb.

The gardener made the walk even.

In the sentence above, if we inquire for the object of the transitive verb *made* by asking *made what?* the answer is, *the walk even*. The gardener may or may not have made the *walk;* he did make it *even*, and the quality of *evenness* came to it through the action denoted by the verb *made*. The adjective *even* is evidently an attribute of the object *walk*.

The parents named the child Mary.

Here the name is acquired through the action expressed by the verb *named*, or in other words, the name *Mary* is attributed to the child.

In the foregoing and in similar examples, the noun or adjective showing the office, name, class, or quality conferred through the action expressed by the verb, is an attribute of the direct object of the verb, and may properly be called an **objective attribute.**

Such nouns and adjectives are sometimes called **factitive objects**, but they may be classed as adjective modifiers of the noun immediately preceding. The noun modifier is an appositive, which is one form of the adjective modifier.

A long illness had made the child weak.

Whosoever maketh himself a king speaketh against Cæsar.

In the first sentence, *weak* is an adjective modifying the noun *child;* and in the second, *king* is an appositive of the pronoun *himself.*

Exercise.

In each of the following sentences, point out the objective attribute, tell what part of speech it is, and state its use.

1. The judges proclaimed him victor.
2. The club made Ellis chairman.
3. Jack has worn his shoes thin.
4. Some called the boy precocious.
5. His parents thought him a genius.
6. I walked myself foot-sore.
7. We will paint the wall blue.
8. Some make the law a scarecrow.
9. Constant fear makes the strongest weak.
10. The tinner made the leak worse.
11. James drew the line straight.
12. Attention held them mute.
13. Open the door wide.
14. Make the surface smooth.
15. She makes the needy her care.
16. The umpire declared him the champion.
17. Count that day lost.
18. He left me destitute.
19. God called the light day and the darkness he called night.

CLXIII. DIFFERENT FORMS OF OBJECTS.

The object of a verb, as we have seen, may be a noun, a pronoun, a verbal noun, or a clause. You remember that the verbal noun may take the form in *ing*, or the form with *to;* as, *dying*, or *to die.*

These different forms give a pleasant variety to the construction of sentences, and add a charm to language which it would not otherwise have.

Exercise.

He fears death. He fears dying. He fears to die. He fears that he shall die.

Select verbs from the following list and construct sentences that will illustrate the use of a part or all of the four forms shown in the table given below. Not every one of the four forms of objects, however, can be appropriately used with each verb in the list.

fears	wish	refuse	propose	decline
scorns	causes	endure	intend	ventures
mind	forgot	promise	expect	arrange
bear	prefer	dislike	requires	deserves

NOUNS.	VERBAL NOUNS.	CLAUSES.
death	dying, to die	that he (one, they) shall (should) die
grief	grieving, to grieve	that one (he, they) should (might) grieve
food	feeding, to be fed	that one should feed me
advice	being advised, to be advised	that one should advise him
the collection	collecting, to collect	that it should be collected
the movement	moving, to move	that it should be moved
shelter	sheltering, to shelter	that I would shelter
apologies	apologizing, to apologize	that one should apologize
punishment	punishing, to be punished	that one should punish him
investment	investing, to invest	that I may safely invest
health	healing, to be healed	that he may be healed
failure	failing, to fail	that he should fail
opposition	opposing, to be opposed	that one should oppose me
the relief	relieving, to relieve	that he shall be relieved
rebuke	rebuking, to be rebuked	that one should rebuke him
the reading	reading, to read	that one should read

CLXIV. COÖRDINATE CONNECTIVES.

Examine the following sentence.

Dark grow the windows, and quenched are the fires.

In this compound sentence the two statements joined by *and* are independent: that is, neither depends on the other. They are thus seen to be of the same rank, or level.

Crowned with flowers and with heather.

In this expression each phrase modifies the same word, *crowned*. These phrases, therefore, are of the same rank.

(1) Rome *and* Carthage *were rivals.*

(2) *The thing is neither* green *nor* blue.

(3) Slowly *and* sadly *we laid him down.*

In each of the foregoing sentences, the two words in Roman type have the same construction: that is, are built into the sentence in the same way: hence they have the same rank. In (1) they are united to form the subject of the sentence; in (2), to form the complement; and in (3), to modify the verb.

Connectives which join words, phrases, or statements that are alike in rank are called **coördinate**.

The following list comprises those most frequently used: —

so	yet	either	therefore
or	nor	so that	otherwise
but	else	neither	wherefore
and	still	further	accordingly
also	thus	so then	consequently
both	than	however	notwithstanding

CLXV. CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

Some coördinate conjunctions are used in pairs to connect the parts of a sentence. They are then called **correlative.**

Either *I must have work*, or *my family must suffer.*
Where neither *moth* nor *rust doth corrupt.*

In these sentences the conjunctions *either*, *neither*, prepare the mind for the alternative suggested by the words *or*, *nor.*

Strictly speaking, *either* and *neither* should be used only in reference to two objects; yet both of these words are used by some good writers and speakers with reference to more than two objects.

The chief correlatives are *either — or*, *neither — nor*, *both — and*, *not only — but also*, *as well — as*, *as — so*, *so — that.*

Two or three words are frequently used together to connect parts of sentences; as, *as if*, *even if*, *even though*, *saving that*, *in order that*, etc.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out the coördinate conjunctions, and tell what each connects. Which are correlative?

(*b*) Analyze each sentence.

1. The winds and the waves are absent there.
2. You say that you are my friend; then do not flatter me.
3. Mr. E.'s declination seemed final; however, he has now accepted.
4. We look before and after, and pine for what is not.
5. He has become wealthy; still, he goes on accumulating.
6. Self-love and reason to one end aspire.
7. The young man was taken for a novice; whereas, he was an adept.
8. Neither a borrower nor a lender be.

9. I have believed; therefore have I spoken.
10. The floods came, and the winds blew, but it fell not.
11. Our neighbor is not rich, nor is he poor.
12. Jackson has not sought the nomination; moreover, he will refuse it.
13. There is a class of students and thinkers whose intellectual action is alive and warm.
14. Our bane and physic the same earth bestows,
And near the noisome nettle blooms the rose.

CLXVI. COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

We have seen nouns and pronouns used in many different relations — as subjects, complements, objects, etc. In nearly every one of these relations, nouns and pronouns may form compound elements.

Examples: The *moon* and *stars* are hidden.
Jansen is a *painter* and *glazier*.

In the same way, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs are joined to form compound predicates or compound modifiers.

Examples: In Him we *live* and *move* and *have* our being.
Great and *glorious* are thy works.
Her thoughts moved *sunward* and *Godward*.

Phrases and also clauses are compounded when both modify the same word.

Examples: Arise *in courage* and *in might*.
They came *where the cowslips grew* and *where the grass was fresh and fine*.
What I did or *what I left undone*, no one asked.

In like manner, a word and a phrase are compounded.

Example: She gave *gladly* and *without stint*.

The parts forming the compound element are said to be **coördinated**.

Exercise.

(1) *I meet him now and then at my friend's house.*

In this sentence, *now and then* is a compound element, the two connected words being adverbs, modifiers of the verb *meet*.

(2) *One of the holiest relations is that of mother and son.*

Here *mother and son* is the compound element. The phrase *of mother and son* is an appositive of *that*.

(3) *Of Him, and through Him, and to Him, are all things.*

Here the attributive verb *are* is modified by a compound adverbial element, consisting of three phrases.

(*a*) Point out in each example below, the part that is compound, and state whether the parts coördinated are words, phrases, clauses, or independent propositions.

(*b*) Name the principal proposition; also, tell what the phrases and clauses modify.

1. He spoke from the platform and through the press.
2. Nature is frugal, and her wants are few.
3. Here is a proof of wisdom and of love.
4. The country offers sweet odors and alluring sights.
5. Is it her nature or is it her will?
6. We moved through dark and desert ways.
7. In works of labor or of skill, let me be busy.
8. Bring lilies to altar and shrine.
9. The bears moved ceaselessly to and fro.
10. A mantle of pity falls soft on a wound or a woe.
11. 'Tis Nature's voice, and Nature we obey.
12. Chanticleer salutes the light, and struts before his flock.
13. The moon's veil is both her luster and her shade.
14. If he is timid or if he is too bold, we reject him.
15. Stay till the fields are fragrant and the woods are green

CLXVII. SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES.

(Review pages 75 and 192–194.)

In the sentence, *When the children are gone, I sit dreaming*, we have one independent statement, *I sit dreaming*, and one dependent statement or clause, *When the children are gone*. These two statements, connected by the conjunctive adverb *when*, are therefore of unequal rank.

Connectives that join parts of unequal rank are called **subordinate**. Clauses are always subordinate to the main proposition, and every connective introducing a clause is a subordinate connective.

Below are the principal subordinate connectives: —

if	when	because	since	although
lest	where	except	than	unless
for	whence	while	that	whether
as	often	provided	though	whereas
ere	until	as soon as	before	as long as

When used as conjunctions, *as* and *for* are sometimes coördinate and sometimes subordinate.

Subordinate propositions, or clauses, are variously connected with their principals.

(1) **By subordinate conjunctions.**

Clauses introduced by subordinate connectives may denote: —

1. **Cause**: We must seek shelter, *for* the storm is near.
2. **Condition**: *If* little be our labor, small will be our gains.
3. **Concession**: *Though* he is old, yet he is strong.
4. **Purpose or end**: "I say these things, *that* ye may be saved."
5. **Comparison**: He rises earlier *than* I (rise).

Clauses like the foregoing modify the verb of the principal proposition, and are therefore **adverbial clauses.**

(2) **By conjunctive pronouns.**

The conjunctive pronouns *who*, *which*, *that*, and *as* represent the person or thing denoted by the antecedent. In doing this, the pronoun connects with its antecedent the clause in which the pronoun stands. Such clauses are **adjective.**

(3) **By conjunctive adverbs.**

He has gone to Cleveland, where *he will reside* = *He has gone to Cleveland*, in which place *he will reside.*

The phrase *in which place* is an adverb modifier of *will reside*. *Which* refers to the antecedent *Cleveland*, and thus joins the dependent proposition to the principal proposition.

Notice that the adverb *where* here modifies but one verb. The same word may be used to modify both the verb of the principal proposition and that of the dependent.

The tree lies where *it fell* = *The tree lies* in the place on which *it fell.*

In the place being a phrase modifier of *lies*, and *on which* a phrase modifier of *fell*, we see that *where* fills two adverbial offices. It is therefore a **compound conjunctive adverb.**

The following list contains the words most frequently used as conjunctive adverbs: —

as	why	while	wherein	wherefore	whereat
when	where	whenever	whereby	whereon	whence

Phrases are often used in place of simple conjunctions. Some of the most common are *as if*, *as though*, *as well as*, *as soon as*, *as long as*, *in order that.*

Examples: He studies *as if* he were anxious to learn.
The pupils go *as soon as* the clock strikes twelve.
William saved his money *in order that* he might go to college.

Exercise.

(*a*) Point out each connective, and tell to what part of speech it belongs.

(*b*) State the use of each clause and phrase.

1. No one doubts that the senator will be heard.
2. Unless we sow, we shall not reap.
3. The culprit has been returned to the cell whence he escaped.
4. Clara and I were writing when father arrived.
5. I will go whither Truth leads.
6. We reached a shelter just as the storm burst forth.
7. As this treaty consulted the good of the two parties, it was long preserved.
8. You should help this committee, since the cause is worthy, and you have the means.
9. If you will give me time, I will prove what I said.
10. Is thine eye evil because I am good?
11. The seed sprouted where it fell.

CLXVIII. RULES FOR SPELLING.

Few helpful rules for spelling can be given. The following, however, should be thoroughly learned. The daily spelling lesson will furnish the best possible exercise in the application of these rules.

A final silent *e* is dropped on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Examples: close, closing, closure; blame, blamable, blamed. (In *blamed*, *ed* is the suffix, as the final *e* has been dropped.)

Exceptions. — Final *e* is retained in *dyeing*, *singeing*, *tingeing*, to distinguish these words from *dying*, *singing*, *tinging*.

Final *e* is also retained in *canoeing*, *hoeing*, *shoeing*, *toeing*, to insure correct pronunciation.

Again, *e* is retained whenever a word ending in *ce* or *ge* receives a suffix beginning with *a* or *o*. This is done in order to preserve the soft sound of *c* and *g*.

Examples: peace, peaceable; manage, manageable; outrage, outrageous.

Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Examples: plan, planning, planned; begin, beginning, beginner.

Exercise.

Add two or more of the suffixes *able*, *al*, *ance*, *ence*, *ant*, *ent*, *ible*, *ing*, *ed*, *en*, *er*, *est*, *ish*, to each word in the following list, and show that the spelling does, or that it does not, fall under one of the foregoing rules.

cure	pale	subdue	remit	wed	dream
remove	observe	white	occur	overrun	cool
reverse	blue	fatigue	bat	heed	murmur
excuse	argue	rid	fret	fail	differ
prove	converse	red	extol	disturb	wear

A noun ending in *y* preceded by a vowel forms its plural by adding *s* to the singular.

Examples: alley, alleys; money, moneys; attorney, attorneys.

A noun ending in *y* preceded by a consonant forms its plural by changing *y* to *ie* and adding *s*.

Examples: fly, flies; mercy, mercies; ally, allies; soliloquy, soliloquies.

Remark. — The letter *u* following *q*, and not silent, has the sound of *w* in *win*; that is, it is a consonant.

Derivatives formed by prefixing one or more syllables to words ending in a double consonant, commonly retain both consonants.

Examples: recall, fulfill, enroll, instill, emboss.

The word *until* is an exception.

CLXIX. USE DETERMINES CLASSIFICATION.

(Review Lesson LVIII., page 78.)

In the sentence, *Are is the copula*, it is plain that the word *are* is a noun. Evidently, any word in the language may be used as a noun. Vast numbers of nouns may be used as verbs: We *paint* the wall, *iron* the linen, *water* the flowers, *paper* the ceiling, *carpet* the floor, *ink* the fingers, *border* a garment, *floor* a cabin, *ship* freight, *freight* a ship, *house* our stock, *stock* our stores, and *land* our passengers.

Again, nouns often become adjectives. Thus we have *cloth* measure, *body* servant, *hand* car, *shoe* shop, *shore* bird, *shot* tower, *freight* agent, *title* deed.

The examples above call for little or no study. Below, we present for reference a few examples of words not so easily classified.

About. (1) Preposition. — Bind them *about* thy neck. (2) Adverb. — *About* ten more were sold. We wandered *about* from house to house.

Above. (1) Preposition. — *Above* the cloud is the star with its light. (2) Adverb. — That prayer was wafted to the powers *above*. *Above* a dim light was seen, but below all was dark. (3) Noun. — Every good gift is from *above*.

After. (1) Preposition. — *After* the failure. (2) Conjunctive Adverb. — He left *after* the guests came in.

All. (1) Pronoun. — *All* refused. (2) Noun. — This child was her *all*. (3) Adjective. — *All* this counsel was vain. (4) Adverb. — Your work is *all* awry.

As. (1) Conjunctive Pronoun. — Reject such *as* are shop-worn. (2) Conjunction. — The house was abandoned, *as* it was unsafe. (3) Conjunctive Adverb. — He is not so tall *as* I. (4) Adverb. — What other toil is *as* hard? (5) Preposition (or sign of apposition). — I consulted him *as* a physician.

Both. (1) Adjective. — *Both* books are mine. (2) Pronoun. — *Both* are mine. (3) Conjunction. — He is *both* able and willing.

But. (1) Conjunction. — He must increase, *but* I must decrease. (2) Preposition. — All *but* him have fled. (3) Adverb. — At worst, we shall *but* fail.

Either. (1) Adjective. — Trade with *either* grocer. (2) Conjunction. — The order was taken *either* by this boy or by his father. (3) Adjective Pronoun. — *Either* will serve the purpose.

Fast. (1) Noun. — A forty days' *fast.* (2) Verb. — We *fast* often. (3) Adverb. — They live *fast* by. *Fast* and thick fell the snow. (4) Adjective. — Make *fast* the door. *Fast* colors.

Like. (1) Noun. — I shall not look upon his *like* again. Our *likes* and dislikes. (2) Adjective. — *Like* figures. He giveth snow *like*[1] wool. (3) Adverb. — *Like*[1] one in prayer I stood. (4) Verb. — He *likes* his profession.

Much. (1) Adverb. — He talks too *much.* (2) Adjective. — *Much* learning hath made him mad. (3) Noun. — He made *much* of this favor.

Near or *Nigh.* (1) Adverb. — He drew *nigh* unheard. The ship drew *near*[1] shore. (2) Adjective. — *Near* kinsman.

Notwithstanding. (1) Preposition. — *Notwithstanding* the crowd, he pushed on. (2) Conjunction. — He was beloved, *notwithstanding* he was severe.

Only. (1) Adjective. — This was his *only* chance. (2) Adverb. — Aid is near; he has *only* to ask. (3) Conjunction. — I should have chosen the other, *only* it was frail.

Since. (1) Preposition. — *Since* their visit, no word has come. (2) Conjunction. — *Since* you hesitate, I withdraw my offer. (3) Adverb. — This happened two years *since.* (4) Conjunctive Adverb. — It is long *since* I met him.

Still. (1) Adjective. — All the woods are *still.* (2) Adverb. — The house is *still* standing. (3) Conjunction. — He is young; *still* he has shown much strength. (4) Verb. — He can *still* the raging sea. (5) Noun. — In the *still* of night he ventured out.

Than. (1) Conjunction. — He is taller *than* I. (2) Preposition. — *Than* whom, Satan excepted, none higher sat.

[1] *Near*, *nigh*, *next*, and *like*, whether used as adjectives or adverbs, are properly followed by the preposition *to* before the name of an object. When the *to* is omitted, some grammarians class *near*, *nigh*, *next*, and *like* as prepositions.

That. (1) Adjective. — *That* life is long which answers life's great end. (2) Conjunctive Pronoun. — He is one *that* lives for others. (3) Conjunction. — They say *that* we are weak. (4) Adjective Pronoun. — *That* is preferred.

The. (1) Adjective. — *The* mind. (2) Adverb. — *The* more, *the* merrier.

Then. (1) Adverb. — *Then* shall I know. (2) Conjunction. — If you still hope, *then* I will not despair.

There. (1) Adverb. — Darkness *there* might well seem twilight here. (2) Expletive. — *There* are two sides to every question. (3) Interjection. — *There! there!* be calm.

Very. (1) Adverb. — *Very* few men derive pleasure from wealth. (2) Adjective. — That is the *very* book I wanted.

What. (1) Interrogative Pronoun. — *What* will they do? (2) Interrogative Adjective. — *What* insurance had he? (3) Conjunctive Pronoun. — I heard *what* you said. (4) Interjection. — *What!* house and furniture in ashes! (5) Adverb. — *What*[1] with diligence and *what* with others' aid, I have kept my home.

Where. (1) Interrogative Adverb. — *Where* may the wearied eye repose? (2) Conjunctive Adverb. — Walk *where* the flowers shall greet thee.

Which. (1) Interrogative Pronoun. — *Which* is least costly? (2) Indirect Interrogative Pronoun. — I have learned *which* is most costly. (3) Interrogative Adjective. — *Which* brand do you choose? (4) Conjunctive Pronoun. — The road by *which* we came is pleasant.

While. (1) Noun. — The news gave us comfort for a *while*. (2) Conjunction. — He is cautious, *while* his partner is rash. (3) Verb. — We will *while* away an hour by the lakeside. (4) Conjunctive Adverb. — We shall lodge at the Windsor *while* business holds us in this city.

Who. (1) Interrogative Pronoun. — *Who* hath sorrow? (2) Indirect Interrogative Pronoun. — I know *who* hath sorrow. (3) Conjunctive Pronoun. — We read of one *who* taught not as the scribes. (4) Compound Conjunctive Pronoun. — *Who* steals my purse steals trash.

Yet. (1) Conjunction. — Well inclined, *yet* sometimes indiscreet. (2) Adverb. — Faster and *yet* faster.

[1] *What* is here used in the sense of *partly*.

CLXX. DERIVATIVES.

(Review Lesson CXIV., p. 168.)

Derivatives are of two kinds: (1) Words formed directly from other English words; as, *fanciful* from *fancy; clownish* from *clown*, etc. (2) Words derived from foreign roots by means of prefixes and suffixes; as,

Latin, *audio*, *auditum*, meaning *hear*.
English, *audience*, *auditor*, *auditory*, etc.

The derivative is frequently a different part of speech from the root; as,

Fancy (noun), *fanciful* (adj.).
Long (adj.), *lengthen* (verb).

Exercise 1.

From the following nouns, make corresponding adjectives, and use each derivative in a sentence.

sense	space	college	toil	office
ridicule	joke	globe	court	irony
miracle	angle	clerk	science	drama
muscle	apostle	error	history	power
cylinder	fraud	theater	fruit	zeal

Exercise 2.

Use, in sentences, nouns that correspond to the following adjectives.

durable	barbarous	young	pure	squalid	generous
secret	gluttonous	resolute	vacant	fanatic	novel
humble	secure	rival	warm	brave	splendid
private	accurate	bold	dense	rich	temperate
moral	simple	solemn	stupid	fertile	civil

CLXXI. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Exercise 1.

ADJECTIVE.	NOUN.	VERB.
able	*ability*	*enable*

He was a lad of great *ability*. Your help *enabled* us to finish the work.

Use, in sentences, nouns and verbs that correspond to the following adjectives.

able	noble	rare	wide	poor	just	solid
deep	moist	legal	human	neutral	bitter	timid

Exercise 2.

Give nouns corresponding to the following verbs.

bribe	endow	insert	contrive	expose	promote
rob	seize	contend	mock	grow	break

Exercise 3.

Give nouns or adjectives corresponding to the following verbs.

inquire	esteem	hate	oppose	consider	prophesy
argue	agree	fail	cohere	declaim	qualify

CLXXII. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Exercise 1.

Japan, Japanese, japanning.

Form other words from the following proper nouns, and tell the parts of speech of the derivatives.

China	Rhine	Athens	Saxony	Peru
Alps	Brazil	Turkey	Troy	Cuba
Poland	Genoa	Siam	Switzerland	Naples

Exercise 2.

The terminations *et* (*ette*), *let*, *ling*, *ock*, *de*, *ule*, *cule*, *kin*, signify *small*, *little*, or *young*; as, *duck*, *duckling*. Derivatives with such terminations are called **diminutives.**

Form diminutives from the following nouns.

globe	pill	stream	goose	ring
flower	hill	lamb	plant	part
crown	river	eagle	animal	man
nest	year	plume	sphere	sap

CLXXIII. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Exercise 1.

Explain the meaning of the suffixes in the following derivatives.

cloudy	kingdom	boyish	pianist	baroness
ringlet	songster	southward	marine	senseless

Exercise 2.

Explain the meaning of the prefixes in the following derivatives.

beset	antecedent	trident	exodus	antidote
assent	cognate	anarchy	eulogy	reclaim
adhere	submerge	peninsula	polygon	transatlantic

Exercise 3.

Change (or supply) a prefix or a suffix in each of the following words so that an opposite meaning will be expressed.

legible	selfish	equality	polygamy	discreet
legal	modesty	quiet	arctic	faulty
romantic	discord	official	normal	prove
just	export	exact	union	piety
painful	credit	loyal	remorseful	comparable

CLXXIV. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Exercise 1.

Give all the English words you can find that are derived from the following Latin nouns.

annus, *year*	corpus (corps), *body*	litera, *letter*
caput (capit), *head*	dens, (dent) *tooth*	mare, *sea*

Exercise 2.

Give English words derived from the following Latin nouns.

manus, *hand*	domus, *house*	auxilium, *help*
ager, *field*	ira, *anger*	fumus, *smoke*

Exercise 3.

Mention some English words derived from the following Latin nouns and adjectives.

patria, *country*	rota, *wheel*	rivus, *river*	pecunia, *money*
porta, *door*	somnus, *sleep*	urbs, *city*	primus, *first*
decem, *ten*	sanus, *healthy*	insula, *island*	aqua, *water*

CLXXV. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Exercise.

Exclude. The prefix *ex* means *from, out*; the root *claudo* (in compounds, *cludo*) means *shut, close*. Hence, *exclude* means *shut out*.

With the aid of a dictionary when necessary, show, as above, the meaning of the prefixes in the words in the following list.

Exclude, include, preclude; circumference, conference, differ, prefer; export, import, transport, support; postpone, postmeridian; consent, dissent; compose, depose, impose, transpose; compress, depress,

impress, repress, suppress; deject, eject, inject, reject, subject; dispel, propel, expel; infinite, ingrate, indecorous, inhuman, impious; accord, concord, discord; adhere, cohere; circumlocution, circumnavigate; avert, abstain, absent; arrive, assimilate, attain; extraordinary, extra-tropical; perfect, perform, perennial.

CLXXVI. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Exercise.

Show the meaning of the prefixes in the words below.

Accretion, excrescence; insipid, insane, insalubrious; avocation, affix, annex, attend; anteroom, antecedent; antarctic, antislavery; concur, correlation; contradict, controvert; depend, deduct; disarm, discharge; outrun, outsail; subordinate, submarine; translate, transcend; incline, recline, decline; accept, except, precept, intercept; abstract, extract, attract, retract, subtract, protract, contract, distract; enact, exact, transact, react; recur, concur, occur, incur.

CLXXVII. DERIVATIVES (*continued*).

Exercise.

Flexible. The suffix *ble* (*able, ible*) means *that may be;* the root word *flecto* means *bend;* therefore, *flexible* means *that may be bent.*

With the aid of the dictionary, study the words below, and show the meanings of their suffixes.

Flexible, credible, tangible, curable; primal, final, legal, martial; manikin, hillock, globule, reticule, spiracle, animalcule, lambkin; trustee, patentee, referee, lessee; volunteer, engineer, mountaineer; abstinence, diffidence, transparency; dependent, recipient, evanescent; gratify, liquefy, pacify, signify; magnetic, prismatic, cosmetic, eclectic; fragile, puerile, hostile, docile; delusion, union, revolution; reddish, feverish; governor, radiator, testator, lessor, revealer; verbose, onerous, jocose, atrocious; blamable, soluble; clerkship, friendship; dangerous, glorious, laborious, grievous, lustrous.

CLXXVIII. HELPS TO PUNCTUATION.

The principal marks used in punctuation are the following: —

Comma	,	Exclamation point . .	!
Semicolon	;	Dash	—
Colon	:	Parentheses	( )
Period	.	Brackets	[ ]
Interrogation point . .	?	Quotation marks . .	" "

The Comma.

(1) The name of the person addressed (the compellative) is set off by a comma.

Examples: Mother, I'm to be queen of the May.
Tell me, John, what you have found.

(2) Words, phrases, or clauses, in the same construction, are separated by commas. If, however, all the terms are separated by conjunctions, the comma may be omitted.

Examples: A calm, serene, cheerful old age is always useful.
No one person can excel in music and painting and sculpture.

(3) An appositive, especially when itself modified, is commonly set off by commas.

Examples: Baltimore, the Monumental City, has grown rapidly.
We, your representatives, shall demand justice.

(4) Adverbial modifiers, especially when used at the beginning of a sentence, or when interrupting its smoothness, are commonly set off by commas.

Examples: While your sun prospers in the blue, take warning.
My wish, nevertheless, was heard and remembered.

(5) Two or more pairs of words should be set off in pairs by commas.

Examples: Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote.

You are a parent or a child, a brother or a sister, a husband or a wife, a friend or an associate, of some kindred soul.

(6) A direct quotation should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; or, if formally introduced, by a colon.

Examples: Then was heard the cry, "Run for your life!"

These were the Teacher's words: "Be ye therefore perfect."

(7) A non-restrictive adjective clause (so-called) is set off by a comma. On the other hand, a restrictive adjective clause should very rarely be so separated.

Examples: All eyes were now on Philip, who had not spoken.

There hangs the picture that received the highest award at the exhibition.

REMARK. — The importance of this rule, and the frequent neglect of it, are a sufficient reason for suggesting that there should be ample practice in its use.

In each case of a non-restrictive, explanatory or additive clause, the conjunctive pronoun is nearly equivalent to *and it*, *and he*, or a like expression; that is, the clause has not the function of a part of speech, but is coördinate with the main proposition.

(8) An adjective phrase, when non-restrictive, is separated from its noun by a comma; but a restrictive adjective phrase is not so separated.

Examples: There is the renowned Montana statue, cast in silver.

Chicago now appears before the world as a metropolis representing a new civilization.

The Semicolon.

Statements so related as hardly to allow a period between them, yet having a connection too slight to be shown fitly by a comma, are separated by a semicolon.

Examples: To err is human; to forgive, divine.
If you want a thing done, go; if not, send.

Remark. — If the members of a compound sentence are connected by a conjunction, and if each member is unbroken by commas, then a comma usually serves between the members: as, *The land is everywhere richly cultivated, and a happier peasantry nowhere exists.*

But if one or more members are themselves broken by commas, a semicolon is indicated between the members: as, *Again fragments of ice began to fall; and, already sufficiently startled, we expected to see the whole side nearest us crash bodily upon the schooner.*

The Colon.

(1) A colon is used after the words, *thus, as follows, this, these, namely,* when they formally introduce a speech or quotation.

Examples: Mr. Mills began his speech as follows: "We hold these truths to be self-evident," etc.
His last words were these: "I still live."

When the speech or quotation begins a new paragraph, a dash should follow the colon.

Example: The Hon. James A. Garfield was then introduced and spoke as follows: —
"Socrates recommended to one of his disciples," etc.

(2) A colon should be used after a clause which is complete in itself, but followed, without a conjunction, by some remark or illustration.

Example: The religion of the Greek drama was not a mere form: it was full of truth, spirit, and power.

The Period.

The period is used (1) at the close of every assertive or imperative sentence: (2) after a title or heading; (3) after an abbreviation, — as, *Mrs. Chas. L. Ward, N. Andover, Mass.*

Remark. — Shortened proper names, like Hal, Tom, Will, are not "abbreviations." Nor should the period be thought necessary after such expressions as 8vo, 12mo, or 1st, 2d, 3d, etc. It is often used, however, after Roman numerals; as I., IV., X., C., etc.

The Interrogation Point.

(1) The interrogation point is placed at the end of an interrogative sentence.

Example: Who was the architect?

(2) Inclosed in parentheses, the question mark is sometimes used to imply doubt.

Example: We were rudely repulsed by the gentleman(?) who had charge of the boats.

The Exclamation Point.

(1) The exclamation point is placed after every expression that shows great surprise, joy, grief, or other emotion; and this point is appropriate even when the emotion is expressed in the form of a question.

Examples:

Honor the Light Brigade,
Noble six hundred!

But what awak'st thou in the heart, O Spring!

(2) Inclosed in parentheses, this point is used to express doubt or a sneer.

Example: The disinterested(!) counselor now withdrew.

Parentheses.

Parentheses inclose a remark or explanatory word or phrase that interrupts the flow of a sentence.

Example:

After roving in the woods
('Twas April then), I came and sat
Below the chestnuts.

Brackets.

Brackets inclose words put by one person into the language of another.

Example: Maguire [his servant] throughout our marches has accompanied me on horseback.

Remark. — To aid in finding the pronunciation, etymology, etc., of a word, the Dictionary incloses certain kinds of facts in parentheses and other kinds in brackets.

The Dash.

(1) Dashes are sometimes used in preference to parentheses or commas, to inclose a parenthetical statement.

Example: The perfect line of rectitude — though desired — was not always to be discerned.

(2) The dash is also used to mark a sudden break in the sentence.

Example:

. . . and stopped perplexed
At what the — Moses — was coming next.

(3) The dash often precedes an appositive.

Example: Only great in that strange spell — a name.

Quotation Marks.

Marks of quotation inclose the exact words of another person. Each part of a divided quotation is separately quoted.

Examples: "Look forth again, Rebecca," said Ivanhoe.

"Foul craven!" exclaimed Ivanhoe; "does he blench from the helm?"

When a quotation includes a quotation, the latter is usually inclosed by single marks.

Example: She wrote to the Brays, "I perceive your reading of the golden rule is, 'Do as you are done by.'"

The Hyphen and Apostrophe.

The hyphen is used (1) after a syllable at the end of a line, when the rest of the word is carried to the next line; (2) between the integral parts of a compound word, as, *son-in-law*, *twenty-five*, *faint-hearted*. (See p. 81.)

The apostrophe, besides its use in forming the possessive of nouns and the plurals of letters, figures, etc., often indicates the omission of one or more letters or figures.

Examples: What o'clock is't? [What of the clock is it?]
April 10, '94.

Rules for Using Capital Letters.

In composition, the following words should begin with capitals:

1. The first word of every sentence, and of every line of poetry.
2. Every proper name and every proper adjective.
3. Every name or title of the Deity.
4. The important words in titles of books or subjects of composition.
5. Titles of honor or respect.
6. The first word in direct quotations.
7. The pronoun I and interjection O, at all times.

Exercise.

Place appropriate marks in the following sentences:

1. Friends Romans countrymen lend me your ears
2. Why Tommy Bancroft didnt you know it was Sunday morning
3. One thing alone was wanting a new set of plumes

4. In whatever we attempt attention is of prime importance
5. We had driven through the village across the causeway and up the ascent
6. On the contrary the cause of Freedom won
7. You wrong me returned his companion
8. Paul the apostle to the Gentiles stood on Mars Hill
9. Nature reserves her most dazzling smiles for those who have earned them
10. We were now at an elevation from which we had a fine view of the city
11. Jew Venetian Roman and Spaniard impelled by an insatiate desire for wealth were urged on to discovery
12. The miser grows rich by seeming poor the extravagant man grows poor by seeming rich
13. If thine enemy hunger feed him if he thirst give him drink
14. Some of the honeycomb flakes were of old date and a deep brown color others were beautifully white
15. And all the question wrangle eer so long is this
16. What is done for effect is seen to be done for effect what is done for love is felt to be done for love

17.
Ist death to fall for Freedoms right
Hes dead alone who lacks her light
And murder sullies in Heavens sight
The sword he draws
What can alone ennoble fight
A noble cause

18. They thought foolish creatures that it was meant for only those who preyed upon the conquered people
19. And we miss our friends ah sadly enough for we have none here
20. Come Jim said the Doctor Jim was his servant we must ride to the village

21.
Water water said the grain
With its yellow head on high
And the spreading fertile plain
Ripening joined the swelling cry
Water for the grains of gold
Wealth untold

CLXXIX. SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. The growth of higher feeling within us is like the growth of faculty, bringing with it a sense of added strength.
2. It is not ignoble to feel that the fuller life which a sad experience has brought us is worth our own personal share of pain.
3. You may choose to forsake your duties, and choose not to have the sorrow they bring. But what will you find? Sorrow without duty, bitter herbs, and no bread with them.
4. The beginning of hardship is like the first taste of bitter food, — it seems for a moment unbearable; yet, if there is nothing else to satisfy our hunger, we take another bite, and find it possible to go on.
5. Duty has a trick of behaving unexpectedly.
6. 'Tis a strange truth, that only in the agony of parting do we look into the depths of love.
7. To be a poet is to have a soul so quick to discern that no shade of quality escapes it.
8. Try to care for what is best in thought and action.
9. Her eyes had that liquid look that tells that the mind is full of what it has to give out.
10. I suppose our keen feeling for ourselves might end in giving us a keen feeling for others, if, when we are suffering actually, we were to consider that others go through the same experience.
11. Feeling what it is to have spoiled our life may well make us long to save other lives from being spoiled.
12. The only failure a man ought to fear is failure in cleaving to the purpose he sees to be best.
13. A man without hope is of no good use to the world.
14. Of two evils, the less is always to be chosen.
15. No profit grows where is no pleasure taken.
16. The pessimist, instead of hoping that to-morrow's skies will be sunny, prefers to remember that yesterday's skies were clouded.
17. The hope of good things to come, and the memory of joys we have tasted in the past, unite to make attractive what would without their influence often be an almost unbearable present.
18. It is our ever-present experience to desire to continue to live.
19. 'Tis greatly wise to know, before we're told
    The melancholy news, that we grow old.

20. I saw the angelic guards from earth ascend,
Grieved they must now no longer man attend.

21. If thou art worn and hard beset
With sorrows that thou wouldst forget, —
If thou wouldst read a lesson that will keep
Thy heart from fainting, and thy soul from sleep, —
Go to the woods and hills! No tears
Dim the sweet look that Nature wears.

22. Oh, it is excellent
To have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous
To use it like a giant.

23. When friendships are real, they are not glass threads and frost-work, but the solidest things we know.

24. Better be a nettle in the side of your friend than his echo.

25. Thou alone
Keepest judgment for Thine own:
Only unto Thee is known
What to pity, what to blame;
How the fierce temptation came;
What is honor, what is shame.

26. Couldst thou in vision see
Thyself the man God meant,
Thou never more wouldst be
The man thou art, content.

27. No radiant pearl which crested fortune wears,
No gem that twinkling hangs from beauty's ears,
Not the bright stars which night's blue arch adorn,
Nor rising suns that gild the vernal morn,
Shine with such luster as the tear that flows
Down virtue's manly cheek for others' woes.

28. Leaves have their time to fall,
And flowers to wither at the north wind's breath.
And stars to set; — but all,
Thou hast all seasons for thine own, O Death!

29. The soul of music slumbers in the shell
Till waked and kindled by the master's spell;
And feeling hearts, touch them but rightly, pour
A thousand melodies unheard before.

30. Just above yon sandy bar
As the day grows fainter and dimmer,
Lonely and lovely, a single star
Lights the air with a dusky glimmer.

31. Our faculties do not always play us true.

32. One must be poor to know the luxury of giving.

33. Our minds get tricks and attitudes, as our bodies do.

34. Party men always hate a slightly differing friend more than a downright enemy.

35. The weeds, you see, have taken the liberty to grow, and I thought it unfair in me to prejudice the soil towards roses and strawberries.

36. When a man is tired of what he is, by a natural perversity he sets up for what he is not.

37. Concert fires people to a certain fury of performance they can never reach alone.

38. 'Tis not new facts that avail, but the heat to dissolve everybody's facts.

39. Education attempts to change what is into what ought to be.

40. Those things which are said to be done by Nature are done by Divine Art.

41. Let every one be true to himself.

42. He wanted to live because he wanted to work.

43. This botched work of thine
Shows that thy mind is distant from thy task.

44. Some one said to a young author, "Do not pull up your shop curtains until you have something to show."

45. I break the chains of slavery to error, that I may become the servant of truth.

46. He does me a double wrong
That wounds me with the flatteries of his tongue.

47. Victor Hugo declared that he was sure he should live beyond the grave, because he felt his soul to be full of hymns and poems he had not had time to write.

48. Some questions should be left to the unfettered play of individual enterprise, which is to the community what unconscious vital activities are to man.

49. That we should do unto others as we would have them do to us, is not a mere counsel to individual perfection, but it is the law to which we must conform social institutions and national policy, if we would secure the blessings of abundance and peace.

50. If we are with the right and for it, though all the world have gone over to the other side, the long line of ancestral and glorified men are behind us, — troops of beautiful, tall angels, to enshield us from all wrong.

51. In the long run, the race is sure to find itself held fast in the grasp of eternal truth.

52. They who hasten to restrain
Rising wrath, in Paradise shall reign.

53. I see, in this world, two heaps, — one of human happiness, and one of misery: now, if I can take but the smallest bit from the second heap and add it to the first, I carry a point. If, as I go home, a child has dropped a halfpenny, and, by giving it another, I can wipe away its tears, I feel that I have done something.

54. Following a multitude to do evil does not make it right.

55. Praising what is lost makes the remembrance dear.

56. There is no cure for things that are not to be remedied.

57. True hope is swift, and flies with swallow's wings;
Kings it makes gods, and meaner mortals, kings.

58. Money may be a beautiful thing; it is we who make it grimy.

59. Next to the illusion, that money can confer happiness, is the illusion that the giving of money is the only form that practical helpfulness can take.

60. The tree of deepest root is found
Least willing still to quit the ground;
'Twas therefore said by ancient sages
That love of life increased with years,
So much that in our latter stages,
When pains grow sharp and sickness rages,
The greatest love of life appears.

61. They are as sick that surfeit with too much,
As they that starve with nothing.

62. Let them obey that know not how to rule.

63. What fates impose, that men must needs abide;
It boots not to resist both wind and tide.

64. I dare do all that may become a man.

65. There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.

66. His life was gentle; and the elements
So mixed in him, that Nature might stand up
And say to all the world, "This was a man."

67. To thine own self be true;
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.

68. We, ignorant of ourselves,
Beg often our own harms, which the wise powers
Deny us for our good; so find we profit
By losing of our prayers.

69. Pleasure and revenge
Have ears more deaf than adders to the voice
Of any true decision.

70 To persist
In doing wrong extenuates not wrong,
But makes it much more heavy.

71. I confess, it is my shame to be so fond; but
It is not in my virtue to amend it.

72. Once or twice in a season, I go down the bay, on breezy mornings, and see these fine fellows of the Yacht Club sail their craft; and I do believe that if they were doing it for their own selves, instead of for my enjoyment, they would not exert themselves more.

73. I sometimes fancy that I enjoy plowing and mowing more when other people are engaged in them than if I were working myself.

74. Little did I suppose that in the wild woods of America I was to meet with a man whose eloquence would give to the passion of our Saviour a new and more sublime pathos than I had ever before witnessed.

CLXXX. LISTS OF PREFIXES (*for Reference*).

	EXAMPLES.
Anglo-Saxon. — a = in, on, to; *or* without assignable force	abed, afield; arise
after = behind	afternoon
be = by, to make	besiege, belittle
for = against, utterly	forbid, forlorn
fore = before	forearm
mid = middle	midsummer
mis = wrong	misname
n(e) = not	never, naught
out = beyond	outrun
over = above, in excess	overreach
un = not	unkind
under = beneath	undervalue
with = against	withstand
Latin. — a, ab, *or* abs = from *or* away	avert, abrupt, abstract
ad (ac, af, ag, al, am, an, ap, as, at) = to, toward	adhere, accede, affable, aggregate, allusion, ammunition, annihilate, apposite, associate, attractive
amb (ambi) = around, on both sides	ambiguous, ambidexter
ante = before	anteroom
bene = well	benediction
bi (bis) = two, twice	biped, bissextile
circum = around	circumnavigate
con (co, col, com, cor) = with *or* together	concur, cohere, colloquy, command, corrupt
counter, contra = against	countermand, contradict
de = down, from	deduct
dis, di, dif = away, asunder	disperse, digress, differ
du (duo) = two	dual, duet, duodecimo
e, ex (ec, ef, es, s) = out	evade, expend, eccentric, effuse, escort, scald
en (em) = in, on, to make	entrap, embody
extra = beyond	extradition
in (il, im, ir) (*in verbs*) = on, upon, in, into	incur, illustrate, import, irrigate
in (ig,[1] il, im, ir) (*in adjectives*) = not	incorrect, illegal, immoral, irreligious
inter = between	intersperse
ob (oc, of, op) = against	object, occur, offer, oppose
pene = almost	penumbra
per = through	pervade, permit
post = after	postscript
pre = before	preposition
preter = more than	preternatural
pro = forth, forward	proceed
re (red) = back, again	return, redeem
retro = backward	retrogression
semi = half	semicircle
sub (suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus) = under	subdue, succumb, suffer, suggest, summon, suppose, surrogate, sustain

[1] Some consider *ig*, as in *ignoble*, *ignominy*, and *ignore*, a form of the prefix *in*; but the *in* is simply shortened to *i* before a *gn* in the following stem.

	EXAMPLES.
subter = under	subterfuge
super, sur = above, over	supervisor, surface
trans = across	transmit
ultra = beyond	ultramarine
vice = instead of	vice president
Greek. — a, an = without, not	apathy, anarchy
amphi = around	amphitheater
ana = up, through	analysis
anti, ant = opposite, against	antidote, antarctic
apo = away	apostrophe
cata = down, over	catastrophe
dia = through	diameter, diaphanous
dys = bad, ill	dyspepsia, dysentery
epi = upon	epitaph, epidemic
eu = well	eulogy, euphonic
hemi = half	hemisphere
hyper = over, beyond	hypercritical
hypo = under	hypocrite
mono = one	monotonous
para = beside, like	parallel, parody
peri = around	perigee, perimeter
poly = many	polygon, polytechnic
syn (syl, sym) = with, together	synthesis, syllable, sympathy
tele = far, far off	telegraph, telephone

CLXXXI. LISTS OF SUFFIXES (*for Reference*).

The following lines contain some of the most common suffixes, with their meanings : —

Anglo-Saxon. — ar (er) = an agent *or* doer	liar, baker
ard (art) = one who	drunkard, braggart
dom = dominion, condition	kingdom, freedom
ed (forming past tense and perf. part. of reg. verbs)	loaded
en = to make, made of	blacken, wooden
er = more	colder, sweeter
ern (ernal, erly) = pertaining to	northern, maternal, easterly
est (st) = most	coldest, last (for latst *or* latest)
fold = times	manifold
ful = full of	graceful
hood = state of	childhood
ing (forming the pres. part. of verbs and nouns of action)	walking
ish = somewhat, like	childish
less = without	penniless
ling = little	gosling
ly = like, denoting manner	manly
ness = state of being	soreness
ock = little	hillock
ship = office of	clerkship
some = full of, like	venturesome

	EXAMPLES.
ster = one who (originally feminine)	spinster, punster
ward = direction of	homeward
y (ie) = belonging to, full of, having the qualities of	stony, merry (old form, merrie)
Latin. — able (eble, ible, ble) = fit to be, capable of, full of	culpable, deleble, terrible, noble
aceous = having the quality of	herbaceous
acious = full of	vivacious
acity (icity, ocity) = state, *or* quality of, fullness of	veracity, felicity, velocity
acy = quality, being, act of	privacy, advocacy
al = belonging to	personal
an (ian, ean) = belonging to, one who	American, Slavonian, European
ance, ancy = state of being	perseverance, constancy
ant = one who	assistant
ary = place where, pertaining to	granary, aviary
ate (*in nouns*) = one who, *or* that which (is the object of an action)	delegate, precipitate
cle, cule = little	corpuscle, animalcule
eer, er = one who, an agent	engineer, baker
ence (ency) = state *or* quality of	diffidence, potency
ent = being, one that	prudent, resident
fy = to make	nullify
ic (ical) = pertaining to	comic, spherical
ice = a being, the thing that	justice, service
id = being	frigid
il (ile, le, eel) = like, ready to be, denoting quality or condition	fossil, ductile, gentle, genteel
in (ine) = belonging to	matin, canine
ion = act of, state of being	protection
ite = one who	favorite
ment = act of, result of	commandment
mony = state of being, thing that	parsimony, testimony
or = one who, that which	instructor
ory = place where	dormitory
ose (ous) = full of, abounding in	adventurous
ple = fold	triple, multiple
tude = state of being	rectitude
ty (ity) = state of being	plenty, purity
ule = little	globule
Greek. — ac, ic = pertaining to	generic
archy = government	monarchy
cracy = government	democracy
graphy = writing	telegraphy
ic (ics) = science of	civics
ise (ize) = to make	criticise, minimize
ism = doctrine, state of being	Calvinism
ist (st) = one who	evangelist, optimist
logy = science of	geology
French. — age, state of being, that which	baggage
ee = one to whom	trustee
eer (ier) = one who	volunteer
ery (ry) = place, condition, collection	grocery, rivalry, yeomanry
ess = female	shepherdess
ette = little	statuette
let = little	streamlet

CLXXXII. LATIN AND GREEK STEMS (*for Reference*).[1]

ag (act), *do;* agile, enact.
alt, *high;* altitude, exalt.
anim, *mind, soul;* animal, animation.
ann (enn), *a year;* anniversary, annual.
aper (apert), *open;* aperient, aperture.
apt, *fit;* aptly, adapt.
arch, *rule;* monarch, anarchy.
art, *skill;* artist, artful.
aud (audit), *hear;* audible, auditor.
aur, *gold;* aureole, auriferous.
bas, *low;* basal, debase.
bat, *beat;* battle, batter.
bit, *bite;* biting, bitter.
brev (bref), *short;* brevity, brief.
cad (cid), *fall;* decadent, incident.
cant, *sing;* cant, incantation.
cap (capt, cept), *take, hold;* capable, captive, receptacle.
capit, *head;* decapitate, capital.
carn, *flesh;* carnivorous, carnal.
ced, *go;* recede, antecedent.
celer, *swift;* celerity, accelerate.
cent, *hundred;* century, centennial.
cing (cinc), *gird;* surcingle, cincture.
clin, *lean;* decline, clinic.
cor, *heart;* concord, cordial.
coron, *crown;* coronet, coronation.
corpus (corpor), *body;* corpuscle, corporal.
cred, *believe;* creed, credential.
cur, *attention;* curate, curious.
curr (curs), *run;* current, cursory.
cycl(e), *circle;* bicycle, cyclorama.
dat, *give;* date, dative.
dent, *tooth;* dentist, indent.
di, *day;* diary, dial.
dic (dict), *say;* diction, predict.
dign, *worthy;* dignify, indignant
domin, *master;* domineer, dominion.
dorm, *sleep;* dormitory, dormant.
duc (duct), *lead;* conduct, introduce.
equ (iqu), *equal;* equivalent, iniquity.
fa, *speak;* fable, preface.
fac, *face;* facial, surface.
fac (fact), *do, make;* manufacture.
felic, *happy;* felicity, felicitous.
fer, *bear;* reference, proffer.
fess, *acknowledge;* profess, confess.
fid, *faith;* fidelity, confidence.
fin, *end, boundary;* finish, infinite.
form, *shape;* deform, transform.
fort, *strong;* fortify, fortitude.
frang (fring, frag, fract), *break;* frangible, infringe, fragment, fraction.
fus, *melt;* fusion, confuse.
gener, *breed, race;* general, regenerate.
gest, *bring, carry;* suggest, digest.
grad, *step;* gradual, degrade.
gran, *grain;* granule, granary.
graph (grav), *write;* graphic, engrave.
grat, *please, favor;* gratify, ingrate.
gross, *big, fat;* gross-beak, engross.
hor, *hour;* horal, horoscope.
hospit, *guest;* hospitable, hospital.
ject, *throw;* interjection, eject.
judic, *judge;* judicial, prejudice.
junct, *join;* adjunct, juncture.
jur, *swear;* perjure, juryman.
lat, *carry;* collate, prelate.
leg, *send;* delegate, college.
leg (lect), *gather, choose, read;* collect, elect, legend.
liber, *free;* liberty, liberal.
lin, *flax, thread;* linen, linseed.
lingu, *tongue;* lingual, linguist.
liter, *letter;* literature, literal.
loc, *a place;* local, dislocate.
log, *speech, reason, science;* logic, decalogue, geology.
loqu, *talk, speak;* colloquy, eloquence.
lud (lus), *play;* prelude, elusive.
magn, *great;* magnify, magnate.
major, *greater;* majority, major.
man, *stay, dwell;* manor, permanent.
manu, *by hand;* manufacture, manual.
mar, *sea;* marine, maritime.
mater, *mother;* maternal, matricide.
med (medic), *heal;* remedy, medical.
medi, *middle, between;* mediator.
mens, *measure;* dimension.
ment, *mind;* mental, comment.
merc, *goods;* merchant, commerce.
merg (mers), *dip;* emerge, immerse.
meter (metr), *measure;* diameter.
migr, *wander, go;* migratory, emigrate.
mir, *wonder;* admire, miracle.
mit (mitt, miss), *send;* permit, admittance, commission.
mon, *advise;* admonish, monitor.
mort, *death;* mortal, mortify.
mot, *move;* motor, motion.
mult (multi), *much, many;* multiply, multitude.

[1] Only that part of the root word is given which is used in the derivation of the English word. This we call the stem or base, as distinct from the root.

mun, *obligation, protection;* ammunition, remunerate.
nat, *born;* natal, innate.
nav, *ship;* navigate, naval.
not, *known;* noted, denote.
numer, *number;* numeral, numerate.
nunci, *report;* annunciate, denunciator.
ocul, *eye;* ocular, oculist.
pan, *bread;* pantry, company.
par, *equal;* parallel, parity.
par, *get ready;* parade, prepare.
parl, *speak;* parlor, parley.
part, *divide;* partner, partition.
pass, *step;* passage, trespass.
pass, *suffer;* passive, passion.
past, *feed;* pastor, repast.
pater, *father;* paternal.
ped, *foot;* pedal, pedestal.
pel (pell, puls), *drive;* expel, repellent, repulsion.
pen, *pain, punish;* penitent, penalty.
pend (pens), *hang;* depend, propensity.
pet, *ask;* petition, compete.
petr, *stone;* petrify, saltpeter.
phil, *love;* philanthropy, bibliophile.
phon, *sound, the voice;* telephone.
physi, *nature;* physics, physiology.
pict, *paint;* picture, depict.
plac, *please;* complacent, placate.
plen, *full;* plenty, replenish.
plet, *full;* replete, depletion.
plic, *plait, fold;* complicate, implicate.
plum, *feather;* plumage, plume.
plumb, *lead;* plumber, plumbago.
pon (pos, posit), *place;* exponent, repose, position.
port, *carry;* import, portable.
port, *gate;* porter, portico.
pot, *drink;* potion, potable.
potent, *powerful;* omnipotent, potent.
prehend, *take, grasp;* comprehend, reprehend.
prim, *first;* primary, primer.
punct, *point, prick;* punctuation, puncture.
quadr, *square, fourfold;* quadrangle.
quant, *number;* quantity.
quer (quis, quest), *seek, ask;* query, prerequisite, request.
quie, *quiet;* acquiesce, requiem.
radi, *ray;* radiant, radius.
rap (rapt), *seize;* rapid, rapture.
rat, *think, determine;* rational, rate.
rect, *right, straight;* rectify, direct.
reg, *rule;* regiment, regent.
ris (rid), *laugh;* derisive, ridicule.
riv, *stream;* river, derive.
rog, *ask;* interrogate, abrogate.
rupt, *break;* abrupt, rupture.
sacr, *holy;* sacred, sacrament.
sal, *leap;* sally, salient.
sal, *salt;* saline, salad.
sanct, *holy;* sanctuary, sanctify.
sat, *enough;* satisfy, satiate.
sci, *know;* science, conscience.
scop, *behold;* telescope, microscope.
scrib (script), *write, draw;* scribe, description.
sec (sect), *cut;* secant, section.
sen, *old;* senile, senior.
sent, *feel, think;* sentiment, dissent.
sequ, *follow;* sequel, consequent.
serv, *serve, keep;* servant, preserve.
sist, *stand;* consist, resist.
sol, *alone;* solitary, solo.
son, *sound;* sonorous, consonant.
sort, *lot, kind;* assort, consort.
spec (speci, spect, spic), *look, kind;* inspect, species, conspicuous.
spir, *breathe;* inspire, perspire.
stant, *standing;* distant, extant.
stell, *star;* stellar, constellation.
string (strict), *bind;* stringent, restrict.
stru (struct), *build, heap up;* construe, construct.
su, *follow;* pursue, suit.
suad (suas), *urge;* dissuade, persuasion.
sum (sump), *take, consume;* resume, consumption.
surg (surrect), *rise;* surge, resurrect.
tact (tang), *touch;* contact, tangible.
tail, *cut;* tailor, retail.
teg (tect), *cover;* tegument, protect.
tempor, *time;* temporary, temporize.
tend (tent), *stretch;* extend, attentive.
test, *witness;* testify, attest.
tort, *twist;* distort, torture.
tract, *draw;* attract, subtraction.
trit, *rub;* attrition, trite.
trud (trus), *rub;* protrude, intrusion.
un, *one;* unit, unify.
und, *wave, flow;* undulate, inundate.
ut, *use;* utilize, utility.
vad (vas), *go;* evade, invasion.
val, *be strong, be worth;* valiant, invalid, value.
ven (vent), *come;* intervene, venture.
vert (vers), *turn;* advert, reverse.
via, *way;* viaduct, obviate.
vic, *change, turn;* vicissitude, vicar.
vid (vis), *see;* evidence, revision.
viv, *live;* vivid, vivisection.
voc (vocat), *call;* revoke, vocation.
volv (volu, volut), *turn;* devolve, voluble, revolution.
vot, *vow;* vote, devoted.

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